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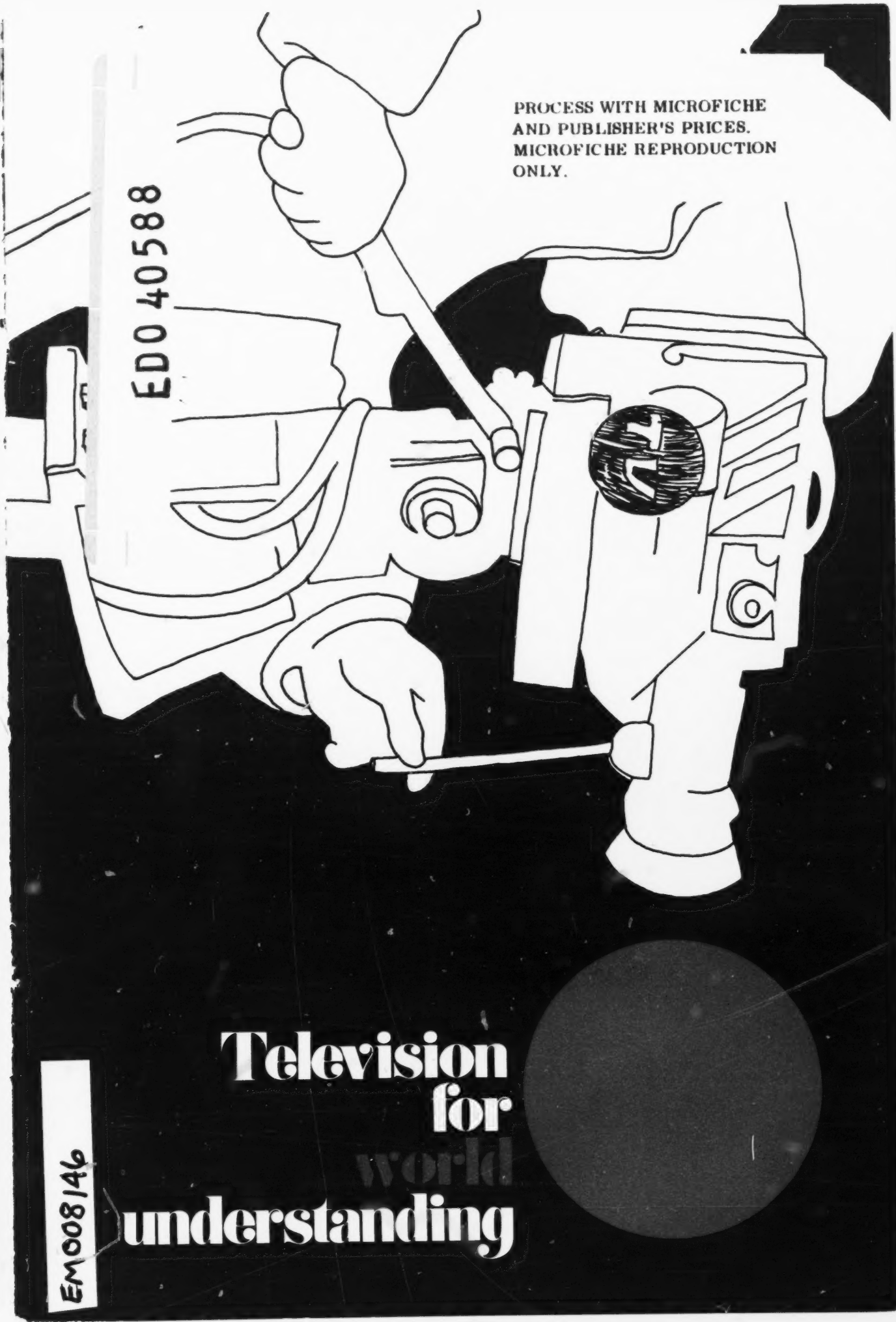
Television will be a valuable tool in preparing people to cope with a shrinking and increasingly interdependent world. A child left to his own devices will equate "strangeness" with "danger". Television can bring a wide variety of experiences with different cultures to a child and help him to formulate an understanding of his place in the world. Television, particularly with the aid of a communications satellite, can be used for instructional, educational, or informational purposes to develop better world understanding. For approaches to the use of television in improving international relations are (1) provide children with an opportunity to discuss unusual international incidents encountered in their television viewing, (2) use out-of-school telecasts to illustrate ongoing teaching-learning involving international content, (3) systematically examine television as a major influence at several critical points in the K-12 curriculum, and (4) use instructional television series to implement units and courses with international content. (JY)

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Television for world understanding



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Television for world understanding

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PREFACE

This bulletin is the first comprehensive treatment of the interrelationships of television and international understanding. Much has been written concerning international education in general. But this includes planning for change in developing countries; arranging exchanges of teachers, scholars, students, and materials; and modifying educational curriculums in response to ideas and actions abroad. There are helpful materials, also, dealing with the role of the school in developing international understanding but these either ignore the influence and potential of television or give it scant attention.

What I have done here is to focus on the television medium itself as it relates to growth in world understanding. I have suggested ways in which the school can acknowledge and respond to its significant impact on children and young people. Further, I have delineated instructional strategies for employing this powerful instrument in achieving the needed goals. This includes not only using programs presently carried on commercial and educational stations, but also broadcasting instructional television programs directed specifically to these ends.

This is written for a three-fold audience. First of all, it is for teachers, for they are the ones responsible for the success or failure of this whole endeavor. Next, it should be helpful to curriculum specialists and school decision makers who must embody ideas and plans in the ongoing program of the schools. Finally, it is believed that educational and instructional broadcasters will find numerous helpful suggestions which can be implemented through their professional activity.

I am most grateful to the National Education Association which commissioned this study and to Harold E. Wigren, of its Division of Educational Technology, and Merrill F. Hartshorn, of the National Council for the Social Studies, who provided helpful suggestions and criticism. Joe Townsley gave invaluable assistance by surveying present television offerings and sharing ideas and insights. To my

colleagues Raymond Muessig, Alexander Frazier, and Edgar Dale, I owe much for wise counsel and sage advice. It is only fair to say, however, that I have been left quite free to deal with this subject as I judged best. Thus I take full responsibility for the bulletin's errors and shortcomings.

In all our concern with the international scene and with television, we must not lose sight of the young learner. The extent to which he grows in understanding, in sensitivity, and in disposition to act reflectively with regard to the realities of his contemporary world may well determine his very survival.

I. Karl G. Tyler

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INTRODUCTION

Television is an inescapable part of American life. It is a prime source of entertainment and information. Adults and children alike spend many relaxing hours absorbed in its offerings. But it is also a disturbing element. It mirrors a fast-moving, often violent world. It raises disquieting questions. And it makes clear the need for basic understanding of the world and its peoples.

Confronted daily with a jumble of incidents and events from around the globe the citizen feels in want of a solid basis for comprehension and interpretation. What is he to make of anti-American student demonstrations in Japan, in Latin America, in the Philippines? Are guerilla raids in the Middle East a threat to his own security? Are the alleged massacres of Vietnamese civilians by American troops isolated and unavoidable by-products of a miserable war, or do they represent a degradation and perversion of the American character? Such problems, raised day after day by his exposure to television, add to his burden of worry and to his gnawing anxiety about his own and his country's future.

It is not the adult alone who views these world happenings and faces these troublesome questions. The child, too, in his hours in front of the picture tube is witnessing the potpourri of international incidents with even less rationale for making meaningful what he sees. He senses an undercurrent of concern in what is pictured, and is bothered and even upset by events he dimly perceives as threatening his accustomed way of life.

This daily confrontation of the outside world by adult and child alike is strictly a contemporary phenomenon brought about by advances in electronic communication, particularly television. Never before has man been capable of witnessing events taking place anywhere on the globe and on the moon at the very moment they occur. True, for more than a century, by telegraph and cable, newspapers have reported scattered events from around the world. More recently radio has enabled mankind to hear history in the making as well as to

learn of far-off happenings brought to him by news reports directly from the spot. But these verbal accounts, somehow, only occasionally touched the ordinary man in any vital or profound way. While the concerned minority worried itself with global problems and despaired of interesting the majority in such apparently remote events, the bulk of citizens paid little heed to this international reportage as it busied itself with its day-by-day activities. Thus these older mass media developments only prepared the way for today's instant, lifelike immersions in world events.

There are two profoundly significant characteristics of television communication which together so enhance its credibility and impact as to make it unique. It represents *instant communication* and it conveys veritable *pieces of life*. The quality of instantaneous communication is not, in itself, new. Television shares this with radio among the mass media. But with the development of communication satellites, television was enabled to bring lifelike color pictures with sound from any point in the entire world (and from space, too!) to the viewer in the intimacy of his home, instantaneously. And what the viewer experienced was not a reporting of far-off happenings; instead, he was a firsthand witness to the unfolding drama of human interaction, an involved participant in historic events as they occurred, here and now. The impact was and is shattering! Any American today, regardless of economic or class status, of race, nationality or educational level, be he adult or child, can be at the elbow of statesmen and politicians. He can observe the effects of air and water pollution or assess the damage wrought by a calamitous hurricane. He can, briefly, live in an affluent suburb, or experience poverty in the ghetto. He can find himself in the midst of action on the playing field or sports arena. And, finally, he can view violence and conflict close up—in mass demonstrations and labor disputes, in riots, in the pursuit of criminals, and on far-off battlefields.

The appalling fact is that most adults, let alone children, are not presently equipped to handle this widespread exposure to reality. They have neither the intellectual background to place each event in its proper setting and give it its due weight in the human panorama, nor the depth of experience to respond with the appropriate emotional reaction. They tend to be overwhelmed by the revealed "wickedness" of mankind. They tend to be horrified and then indignant at the portrayal of such unpleasant sights as the disintegration of cities, the pollution and destruction of natural resources, and the poverty and misery of people living in rural and city slums. Unable to accept these present-day manifestations of a world in uneasy transition,

they tend to blame the media, and especially television, for exposing them to such disquieting phenomena. They question the accuracy of the reporting, doubt the validity of what they see and hear, and yearn wistfully for a simpler world where traditional values will remain unchallenged.

Clearly, organized education has an obligation to provide the basis for interpretation and understanding of the current world scene. And, conditions being as they are, this must begin early in the elementary school and continue throughout formal schooling and into the adult years beyond. Educators must recognize the present deficiency, place a high priority upon the accomplishment of appropriate educational activities, and proceed systematically to plan and implement a program for all levels from kindergarten through adult education.

The public increasingly demands that education be relevant; that it be directly related to the recognized needs of the individual and society. What could be more relevant, more appropriate, today than a massive effort by organized education to provide children, young people, and adults with a functional background of world understanding to enable them to live meaningfully in a time when, through television, they are willy-nilly immersed in global happenings!

This bulletin is directed to teachers, to educational leaders, and to broadcasters, as they go about the task of discharging this significant responsibility, in the hope that it may clarify the role that television itself can play in this effort. Not only has television been an important factor in creating the need; it also can be a vital element in the process of meeting the need. Essentially, then, this bulletin will document the need for education in international understanding, indicate how concepts and feelings toward other groups and cultures develop, assess the role that television is currently playing in the process, indicate some of the many resources available through both educational and commercial television in meeting the need, suggest some of the ways in which the medium can be put to use in this effort, and, finally, delineate some of the responsibilities which are implied for educators and broadcasters.

I
THE IMPORTANCE
OF EDUCATION
FOR INTERNATIONAL
UNDERSTANDING



Television, that dynamic and pervasive medium of mass communication, can be, today, the indispensable tool for developing international understanding. It brings the real world into classroom and home, there to be examined, assessed, and assimilated. It is already a vital part of the lives of Americans of all ages. It is only fitting, then, that it should be put to use to aid in one of the high priority educational tasks of our time—preparing our citizenry to cope with a shrinking and increasingly interdependent world.

REASONS WORLD UNDERSTANDING IS NEEDED

World Power. The case for the teaching of international understanding hardly needs restating in these days of tension and conflict among nations. The United States, as the richest, most powerful, and most highly developed nation in the world is inevitably affected by every major international disturbance no matter how distant from its shores. Our troops are deployed in bases around the world, our ships are on patrol in the seven seas, our nuclear planes and submarines are on constant vigil. The national intelligence which controls and directs this massive military power is subject, ultimately, to the will of the people which, in turn, reflects the extent and depth of their understanding of the culture, the histories, the problems, and the events of the world's nations and peoples.

Rapidity of Change. The pace of change has so quickened in the recent past that many adults are becoming disturbed and even frightened by the current pace of events. The old and familiar are being replaced by the new and strange. Values are shifting, guideposts are disappearing, the "certainties" no longer exist. Each day brings new disturbances, both domestic and foreign.

The rapidity of change has a two-fold impact. In the first place, statesmen and diplomats hardly catch their breath from their efforts in resolving one crisis before another breaks around them. No longer is there time for leisurely adjustment to new conditions and problems. Solutions must be quickly forthcoming. In the second place, the need for international education is imperative if a world holocaust

is to be averted. The fateful race between education and catastrophe is accelerating at a frightening pace. The forces leading to destruction are jet-propelled while education appears still to be limping along in a Model T.

Increasing Internationalization of Enterprise. To an increasing extent, organized enterprise in the United States is developing international ramifications and commitments. Branches or subsidiaries of large American corporations are to be found in countries all around the globe. Investments of American capital in foreign enterprise are widespread in both developing and industrialized nations. Products of American factories are sold throughout the world, and, in turn, Americans purchase and consume raw materials and manufactured articles from every continent. Agricultural activities, too, are necessarily heavily weighted with international involvement as farm surpluses are disposed of abroad even as large quantities of other agricultural commodities are imported. Thus there is increasing sensitivity in agriculture, business, and industry to change and disturbance in the world situation, no matter how seemingly remote.

Growing Mobility. Closely linked to the international character of American enterprise is the growing mobility of the people associated with these activities. Personnel from the United States are needed wherever the country's interests are involved, either for short-term business trips or for permanent residence abroad. In addition, there are the U.S. citizens who represent their country in official capacities, not only as diplomats, trade and military attachés, and information specialists, but as scientists, scholars, and members of the armed services.

Tourism, also, has added to the flow of Americans across international borders. Often lacking in understanding of and sensitivity to the culture, history, and traditions of the nations they visit, and intent mainly on sight-seeing and relaxation, these vacationers frequently communicate a distorted image of American life and interests.

But mobility is also manifested by the flow of foreigners to the United States—official government representatives, those involved in business, students and scholars, and tourists. This inflow in such quantity inevitably is having its effect upon our people, making them aware of differences, raising questions, and creating problems.

A Shrinking World. The dramatic increase in travel speed made possible by jet aircraft has brought the most distant part of the world within hours of American cities. Such nearness not only poses the

ultimate threat of annihilation or the present reality of transmission of disease and epidemic; it also means a constant vulnerability to economic, social, and military pressures and influences. Understanding may make living in such proximity easier.

Instant Communication. But it is not just the rapid movement of persons that has brought the nations of the world onto each other's doorsteps. Communication has become instantaneous and at the same time more complete and lifelike. Voice and picture are transmitted via satellite to any part of the globe so that world events are not only quickly reported; they can be *simultaneously* viewed.

This instant audiovisual communication of incidents is having two striking effects. In the first place, it is dramatically increasing the aspirations and the expectancies of people at home and abroad as they see different ways of life and an abundance of material possessions. At the same time they are bombarded with the egalitarian watchwords of "democracy" and "equality." Small wonder then that they are no longer content with their meager, grueling mode of existence. In the second place, in its vivid and lifelike portrayal of the conduct of demonstrations, protests, and revolts, television not only indirectly suggests actions to be taken, but also presents the actual strategies and techniques for carrying them out.

Increasing Interdependence. As the pace of events quickens, as business, industry, and trade become worldwide, as mobility increases, as the reverberations of conflict are immediately registered throughout the globe, the world becomes more interdependent. Modern man eats food brought to him from remote regions, wears clothing produced by other lands, and carries on his activities aided by devices and machines developed abroad; in addition, man's essential activities increasingly involve international cooperation. Maintenance of the world's precarious and uneasy peace, for example, is a collaborative effort among the world's powers, great and small, represented not only by the formal organization of the United Nations, but also by treaties, understandings, and balances of force. World travel requires the peaceful working together of hosts of meteorologists, flight controllers, maintenance technicians, airport employees, coast guard workers, surveyors, engineers, and service employees. International communication is dependent upon electronic satellite engineers, cable employees, the world's postal workers, telephone technicians and maintenance workers, radio and television specialists, and working journalists. The World Health Organization keeps constant vigil over disease and epidemic, which, as they break out, are fought and controlled by international teams who

move freely over national borders. Weather control also can be developed only through cooperative scientific enterprise; rain and fog control cannot be limited by boundary lines. Food and agriculture have likewise become world concerns through international collaboration. The Food and Agricultural Organization not only fights the scourge of locusts as it strikes the Middle East or combats a new crop disease which threatens the world's food supply; it also strives to improve productivity through the development of new strains and through research to produce new controls for insects and pestilence. Many of man's important activities today involve the constant working together of people from diverse lands. Man is fashioned by a global civilization which in turn requires of him that he hold up his own end.

Ideological Conflict and Confrontation. Man not only cooperates; he also competes. Historically, the competition of ideas, of values, of religions, has been a basic cause of some of mankind's bloodiest clashes. The expansion of the Muslim empire, the Crusades, the Spanish conquests of the Americas, and the Nazi hegemony over Europe and the consequent destruction of the German Reich by the Western allies and the U.S.S.R. were all either motivated by or justified by religion or ideology. Today's world likewise is in the midst of a cold war between Communism and the Free World, while the Communist bloc, in turn, is rent by ideological clashes over varied interpretations of Leninism.

INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING IS ESSENTIAL

Clearly, then, today's citizen, wherever he resides, is deeply involved in the world scene. Indeed, his welfare and very survival are dependent upon his collective grasp of world events and his consequent successful handling of competition, conflict, and crisis between and among nations and peoples. The development of international understanding is a necessity if the world is to survive and if its people are to continue to advance and prosper.

That this urgent need places a heavy obligation upon the educational establishment seems inescapable. As the educational process becomes more aware of and more responsive to global matters, greater sophistication and increased international understanding develop. The question is not whether the schools should engage in education for international understanding; rather, the problems relate to the extent of their involvement, the appropriate levels for such efforts, and how they shall go about achieving such goals.

THE NATURE OF INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

Before seeking answers to these problems, one needs a clear notion of what it is that the schools are to attain. What is the nature of "international understanding"? What needed behaviors are involved? What are the educational objectives?

International understanding is a broad term, not only embracing an intellectual grasp of important ideas and knowledge about other peoples and cultures, but also involving attitudes toward them, skills in handling personal and social relationships, and values that lead to individual and concerted action and to the assumption of appropriate responsibilities. At all levels it includes an openness to learning about, understanding, and enjoying other cultures, customs, and peoples – a disposition to examining favorably and sympathetically, the new, the different, and the strange. But it does not stop here with a superficial interest in that which is different. There must be an increasingly greater body of knowledge about other nations, cultures, and peoples – their histories, their customs, their achievements, their aspirations, and their basic problems. Fundamentally, the emphasis is on understanding why people behave as they do. This must be implemented with appropriate skills in dealing sensitively and appreciatively with persons who represent other nations and cultures, since such personal encounters with foreign nationals will become increasingly commonplace in the years ahead. Finally, it is essential that this knowledge, these skills, and these attitudes be implemented with the disposition to accept responsibilities and to act appropriately.

II
HOW THE CHILD
DEVELOPS HIS
WORLD VIEW



It should be apparent that the essential understanding of world affairs and of the ways of life of the world's peoples is not achieved automatically and effortlessly as boys and girls grow up in the United States. Rather, if it is attained at all, it develops through a conscious educational program, whether by parents, by religious organizations, by the school, or by some combination of these. Left to themselves, children do not spontaneously attain the necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes to fit them for successful living in a precarious, shrinking world. On the contrary, without guidance, their early contacts with "strangeness" are apt to condition them negatively toward the outside world.

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE CHILD'S VIEWPOINT

Children perpetuate family behaviors. In his early years, a child tends to take on the ways of responding which he sees demonstrated day after day in his own home. He reacts to strangers as his parents do. His attitudes toward different customs and mores mirror those displayed by other members of the family. If the new and strange are met with suspicion and hostility, he will probably react in a similar manner as he encounters the outside world. On the other hand, if he is born into a family already oriented to international concerns, he is likely to catch similar interests and attitudes and thus to be favorably disposed toward learning more about other nations and peoples. But the sad fact is, of course, that the overwhelming majority of adult Americans are not really world-minded (though aware of the impingement of the outside world as never before, thanks to television!) since the conditions which make such understandings and attitudes necessary are far ahead of the development, by the rank and file, of the appropriate responses. Clearly, it is this gap between the realities of our world and the ability and disposition to adjust to, and, even more, to influence them, that makes education for international understanding imperative.

The neighborhood encourages provincialism. As the child moves out into the neighborhood, associates with other boys and girls, and

encounters a wider variety of adults, he again is likely to accept the values and imitate the behaviors which are exhibited around him. The American rural community and city neighborhood tend increasingly in their physical and material makeup to encourage provincialism even as the winds of change more and more blow in the direction of heterogeneity and cosmopolitanism in the culture as a whole. The flight of middle-class affluent whites to suburbia has inevitably brought about almost complete restriction of firsthand contacts of their children to boys and girls like themselves. At the same time, the inner city has become increasingly poor and black as their upward mobile neighbors have moved out to the less-crowded suburbs, to be replaced by new in-migrants from Appalachia and the South. With this increasing segregation by class and race, opportunities for children to rub elbows with those who differ economically, racially, and socially are shrinking. At the same time, attitudes toward other classes and races appear to be hardening. Resentment, in many cases, is turning to hatred, and mistrust to animosity. And the movement toward community-controlled schools in these ghetto islands may aid in developing pride in local achievement and capability, but it is not likely to enhance understanding of the people outside.

So the child in his neighborhood has little chance of being challenged by new cultures or to learn how to get along with alien people. Rather, his biases and prejudices are deepened, his enmities increased. The Appalachian white has traditionally viewed strangers with distrust and suspicion; his children continue to do so in Detroit or Cleveland, as well as in the hills of Kentucky or West Virginia. Spanish-American youngsters in Texas, Arizona, and California, growing up in their segregated neighborhoods, even as they take on the superficial ways of life of the Anglos, adopt neighborhood attitudes and behaviors toward those outside their own group.

Localism is intensified when obviously "strange" people are encountered as they move into the locality or settle nearby. Thus Cubans, Puerto Ricans, and Mexicans, readily identified as "foreigners" by language, appearance, and customs, have appeared to threaten the prevailing mores and life styles of older Americans among whom they have settled. Similarly, easily identifiable Indians, Pakistanis, and Jamaicans, immigrating to Great Britain, have, by their presence, accentuated prevailing provincialism among their working-class neighbors. Sealed off from outside contacts by culture, often by language, and usually by the hostility of those among whom they live, the new arrivals tend to set themselves apart, to establish or perpetuate ghettos, as did the hordes of immigrants to the United

States at the turn of the twentieth century. Children in both groups, the new arrivals and their neighbors, are reared in environments in which the alien is to be resisted and localism prevails.

The mass media reinforce prevailing concepts. Meanwhile, the child, growing up in American culture, is early subjected to the influence of the mass media, particularly television, but including newspapers, films, magazines, and radio. One important effect of this exposure to all the mass media is to confirm and reinforce the values which the child has been gaining in the home and neighborhood. To be sure, he experiences a wide variety of new sights and sounds, and he reads about happenings far removed from his immediate locale, but the interpretation of these events — the values that are exhibited — is mainly conventional, conservative, and representative of generally accepted mores and customs. There is, in the varied forms of the mass media, a vast array of material representing many types of experience and many shades of opinion. Most children, however, tend to ignore the bulk of this and turn to mass-appeal entertainment to satisfy their needs for excitement, adventure, humor, and escape. Even here, while the content of this amusement may deal with the remote, the different, even the bizarre, the treatment usually is not aimed at producing sympathetic understanding nor even at the widening of perceptions. Rather, the goal is to excite, to challenge and overcome the strange, and to assert the superiority of the traditional, homely virtues.

Experience alone is not enough. It is tempting to accept the plausible notion that exposure of individuals to other cultures and peoples will automatically engender learnings favorable to world-mindedness. Thus travel abroad has always been considered salutary and the international exchange of pupils and teachers obviously beneficial. Indeed, many educational programs involve the encouragement of foreign travel, while others provide for longer periods of residence and study abroad. Such measures may be helpful, certainly, but it is now clear that exposure alone to the new and different is no guarantee of broadened attitudes and deepened understandings. Many Americans who travel abroad find only confirmation for their preconceptions and prejudices. From the security of their Hilton, Sheraton, or Intercontinental Hotel rooms, to which they retire wearily each night after viewing the exotic, the strange, and the merely different, they ruminate on the oddities of foreigners, the inefficiencies of their ways of living, and their curious resistance to accepting obviously superior American practices and ideology. Similarly, of the millions of American GI's stationed in bases and

remote outposts around the world since World War II, only a small minority have actually made use of their foreign experience to increase their insights and sharpen their perceptions with regard to other peoples and cultures. Most, regrettably, have taken as much of their homeland living habits as possible with them, resided on American bases, relaxed at servicemen's clubs, and viewed the outside world into which they have been involuntarily thrust as something remote, alien, and sometimes hostile, to be ignored, tolerated, and often resented.

So it cannot be assumed that measures for exposing boys and girls to other peoples and cultures, whether firsthand or vicariously through the mass media, will necessarily ensure their developing the attitudes necessary for living in today's pluralistic world. Moreover, superficial, unpleasant, or unrewarding contacts may harden unfavorable attitudes and even increase animosities. For example, hostilities often result when new groups move into previously homogeneous neighborhoods. The presence of a handful of exchange students in a metropolitan high school does not, in itself, guarantee any increased enlightenment with regard to the nations and cultures from which these young people come.

To be effective, exposure must be accompanied by opportunities for building a rationale, an explanation, that relates the new and the different to previously held concepts and values; i.e., exposure must lead to a constant rethinking and restructuring by the learner of himself, other persons, and the nature of the world.

SOME DERIVED EDUCATIONAL SUGGESTIONS

The foregoing analysis suggests a number of guiding principles useful in nurturing the development of international understanding.

1. *Provincialism must be combated with a positive program.* World-mindedness does not develop automatically from within like the flowering of a rose. Quite the opposite is true; the child tends to take on narrow and parochial views of peoples and cultures. In general, family environment, the neighborhood, and the mass media tend to be provincial and conservative in the values which they reflect, so that "natural growth" is in the direction of traditional and generally accepted behavior norms. Even when the family is cosmopolitan, the child is likely to be so heavily influenced by other environmental factors as often to be confused in his attitudes and thinking. An enlightened world outlook, therefore, can be attained only through a conscious, positive educational program.



2. *Education for world understanding must begin early.* Because the child acquires a high proportion of his basic predispositions and attitudes at a very early age, it is imperative that a school program for the development of international understanding begin with the child's first school experience. This program should not be designed to counteract his family and neighborhood learnings, but to broaden his range of experience so as to challenge inadequate concepts and attitudes.

3. *New and contrasting experiences must be presented.* These may include bring in resource people from other cultures and nations; visiting foreign families or sites representative of other customs and life styles; viewing documentary films and television programs; examining pictures, slides, artifacts, and exhibits; and, of course, reading appropriate material in text and reference books. The essential element is that the child learn about the varied ways in which mankind had adjusted to climate, to topography, to the incidents of history, to religious heritage, and to economic necessity.

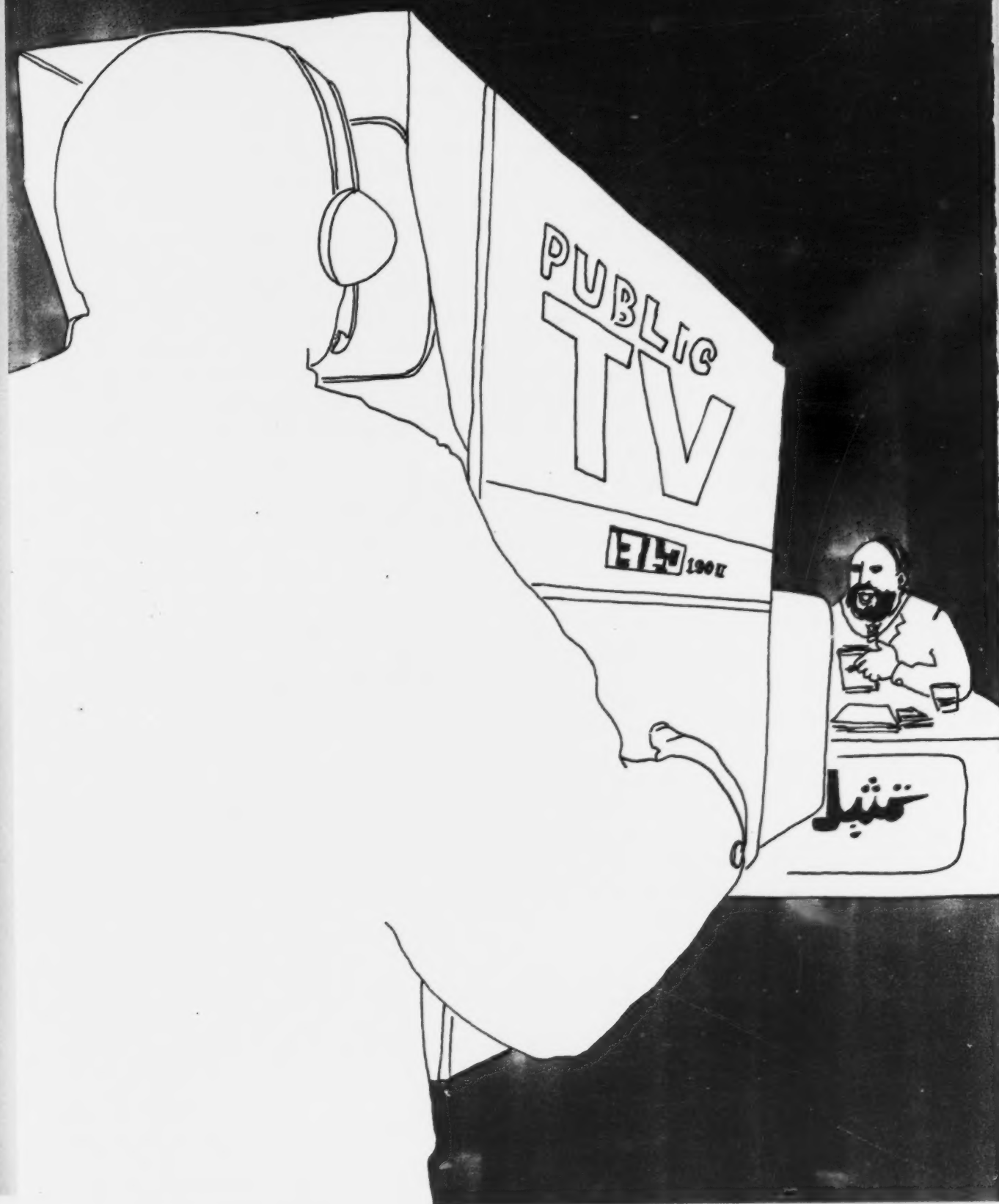
4. *There must be ample opportunity to examine, to compare, to relate, and to assess varied experience.* Once the child has confronted differences in appearance and dress, in food and shelter, in living customs, and in ethical and religious values, he must be given time and encouragement to react to these differences, to make sense out of them, and to bring them into harmony with his own developing understanding of mankind.

5. *The development of a rationale relating to varied cultures and peoples should be fostered.* Accounting for each new experience by developing a logical and sensible explanation is not enough. World-mindedness implies a general disposition and attitude toward varied cultural and national behaviors, based upon a broad understanding of historical background and contemporary problems. Learners should be encouraged to go beyond the individual explanation for each difference and to seek common elements in the varied examples which have been studied. They should be further encouraged to develop basic concepts about the behavior of individuals, of groups, of societies, and of nations. From these generalizations they can gradually piece together a world view, a rationale, which will in turn enable them to interpret customs, cultural and national behavior, and ongoing events which they may encounter in the future. It is this generalized structure that enables individuals to explain, to interpret, to predict, and to behave rationally and consistently.

6. *The learner should be encouraged in self-understanding.* As the child or young person attempts to explain and interpret customs and behaviors new to him, as he gradually builds his world view, he should be encouraged to see himself in relation to other individuals and groups and with reference to the world's people and culture. "Who am I?" becomes an appropriate question as he locates himself as a member of one among several races, born into a given class and particular family, in one of many localities, sharing a specific culture and historical heritage, and, finally, living in the United States of America. Why do I think as I do? Why do I react in the ways I do, to people representing other races, religions, nationalities, cultures? Where am I likely to go in today's – nay, tomorrow's world? Where will I end up? Am I a pawn in the world's events or do I have an individual identity? Can an individual exert influence, change things, in this kind of world? A program for world-mindedness is not a superficial examination of oddities nor a memorization of geographical factors or historical events nor even an acceptance of basic generalizations about culture and peoples. Rather it is aimed at an inner change in the learner himself – in his perceptions of the world and its peoples and his own relationships to them. Such growth in sensitivity to the outside world, in awareness of meaning of events and encountered phenomena, and in perception of relationships of self to others occurs as a result of countless and varied in-depth experiences, resulting from a conscious, well-planned educational program.

Guiding principles, such as the foregoing, derived from an analysis of the child's growth in world outlook should be helpful in framing an appropriate instructional program. Meanwhile, the part to be played by television in this process will be discussed in detail.

III
USING TELEVISION
TO DEVELOP
WORLD UNDERSTANDING



The teacher who seriously goes about the task of nurturing the growth of international understanding on the part of children and young people finds his task far easier due to the omnipresence of television. This medium has already exposed the young to a wider world, thus providing a possible starting point, and television itself can be deliberately used as an indispensable tool in the instructional process.

TELEVISION BRINGS THE OUTSIDE WORLD TO THE CHILD

Today's boys and girls, growing up in the United States, respond to the incessant appeal of television before they walk or talk. This early conditioning by a mass medium is not a phenomenon associated with a particular group or class or economic level; it is characteristic of the upbringing of American children as a whole. It might be well, then, to examine some of the factors associated with this pervasive mass influence.

Television is accessible. It is quite accurate to say that it is the rare child in these times whose home does not contain at least one television set in working order. Not only does 98.5 percent of families possess black and white television¹; the percentage among families with children is even higher. Additionally, in 1969, 29 percent of American homes had more than one set in operable condition² and the percent of households containing color sets was growing rapidly, having already reached 35.7.³

Interestingly enough, although a TV set represents a sizeable investment, lower income families have consistently had higher percentages of set ownership throughout the period of television's development than have families of middle and high income. Of course with the saturation figures of today, the differences are not

¹ *The New York Times Encyclopedic Almanac*, 1970, p. 425.

² Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Current Housing Reports*, Series H-121, January, 1969.

³ *The New York Times Encyclopedic Almanac*, 1970, p. 425.

marked, but the interpretation seems inescapable: Lower income families place a higher relative value upon the possession of television than do the more affluent. For the former, it is an inexpensive form of escape from a drab or sordid, and often, unsatisfying and frustrating daily existence. One might add that this phenomenon has been characteristic of industrialized nations generally—Canada, Great Britain, Japan, West Germany—and not of the United States alone.

Television habits develop early. Studies of children's TV habits indicate awareness of the medium and simple response to it, beginning at about age two. From this age upward there is a constantly increasing amount of purposeful viewing throughout the childhood years, reaching its peak near the age of 13 or 14, where it represents 2½ to 3 hours daily exposure. That the amount drops off during the high school period is due not so much to its loss of attractiveness as to the increased competition by other avid interests and activities characteristic of the teen-ager. According to Schramm, Lyle, and Parker,⁴ "when children mature to a certain point, television becomes less attractive and rewarding to them as they increase their attention to reality-oriented media material" at the expense of television viewing. The total viewing of the child by the time he reaches adolescence, however, has exceeded the amount of time he has spent in formal schooling, for television watching began three or more years before he entered school and was carried on seven days a week throughout the entire year, all during his school career.

It should be noted, of course, that these viewing trends represent averages among all American children, city and rural, suburban and ghetto, rich and poor, North and South, Middle West and West. The figures are, however, amazingly stable over the years since television viewing ceased to be a novelty and became an accepted feature of modern living.⁵

Although there are some individual differences, the outstanding fact is that American children, as never before, are having a common, vicarious, but very lifelike experience through television no matter where they live nor what their families' fortunes. Whether we like it or not, this may tend to reduce or erase colorful regional and cul-

⁴ Schramm, Wilbur; Lyle, Jack; and Parker, Edwin B. *Television in the Lives of Our Children*. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1961, pp. 98-117.

⁵ For data with regard to the preschool years see *ibid.*, pp. 29-35. For figures on the viewing of older children see also Witty, Paul. "Children of the Television Era." *Elementary English* 44: 528-35, 554; May 1967.

tural differences and produce a monotonous sameness in the America of the future. Nevertheless, this universal exposure provides a substantial shared experience among all boys and girls today which the school can either ignore, attempt to overcome, or try to build upon.

Television programs appeal to children. The lifelike characteristics of television give it an apparently irresistible appeal to small children, almost regardless of the programs which it transmits. They see the semblance of life occurring before their eyes in the privacy of their own homes. There is sight (often with exciting color), there is sound (frequently loud and compelling), there is immediacy (it's happening now) and, most important, there is continuing action. The child is amused and pacified even when the choice may consist largely of daytime serials and adult panel shows.

As the child grows older, however, he begins to pay attention to the content of programs. Soon he is selecting among them on the basis of their appeal to him, and he develops his cherished favorites which he tries to watch regularly. To what appeals does he respond?

Action seems to be the most important criterion for the developing child. Full of boundless energy himself, the child seeks its vicarious expression in the incessant action portrayed in his favorite TV programs. *Humor* is a second important appeal. There are two other important program appeals which, in a sense, balance and counteract each other. Perhaps they represent a kind of ambivalence which we all possess. Boys and girls seek the *unknown*. But they also select the *commonplace*. Both seem highly important to them.

There seems little question about the appeal of the unknown. Youngsters have an insatiable curiosity, at least until it has become dulled by suppression at home and at school. They want to find out about everything—what it is like, what it is for, how it works. They follow space flights and moon walks with avid wonderment. Children like to have their minds stretched, their boundaries enlarged; they are eager to adventure into the unknown world beyond their immediate experience.

But, at the same time, youngsters seek reassurance from the familiar. They enjoy repetition. They quickly memorize and join in with advertising jingles. They like to see the same characters, over and over again, acting in expected ways in their favorite programs. They go heavily for oversimplified, situation, episodic drama dealing with animals and with family life. Indeed, as the contemporary American family has become more disorganized, with its older members increasingly absorbed in business and community affairs so that the

child has fewer common experiences with his parents and siblings, the emotional appeal of programs which exhibit close family ties and the warmth of human affection, has markedly increased.

Television exposes children to the world scene. Much of television programming today is tinged with, and reflects, the international character of much of man's activity. Unfortunately, this same content may embody anachronistic parochial values, even as it deals with the unfamiliar and the far away. But more on this later.

There are several ways in which the international scene permeates so much of TV programming. In the first place, news and news specials not only deal with events and crises abroad, they frequently treat selected items in depth. In the second place, the elementary school child watches travelogues and explorer programs which take him to distant lands where he observes alien peoples and their customs. In the third place, there is the practice, which increases with age, of tuning in to various documentary programs—*CBS Reports*, *First Tuesday*—at first because his elders do, or because it has been suggested to him at school, but later because of the inherent interest of the programs themselves. These series frequently deal with such world problems as population control, the Vietnam war, air pollution, Middle East tensions, hunger and famine, and illiteracy and education.

In the fourth place, there are the interviews and discussions with noted world figures on such programs as *The Today Show*, *Meet the Press*, *Face the Nation*, and *Issues and Answers*. These appeal only to a more mature minority among boys and girls, but the viewers of these series are constantly confronted with problems and issues which extend beyond the domestic scene.

The most pervasive intrusion of the outside world into the TV programming which affects children is in the casual presentation of the international in drama, situation comedy, and entertainment generally. Many filmed series are produced abroad, perhaps simply because it can be done more cheaply or because the producer can thus make use of his blocked financial assets resulting from previous film sales and circulation. Such series, however, inevitably portray life in other countries unobtrusively and quite incidentally as the pictured locales include street scenes, public gatherings, hotel lobbies and restaurants, trains, busses, and taxicabs. Spy thrillers and adventure series frequently embody a foreign setting. Many international celebrities make guest appearances on regular big-name entertainment programs. The child of today cannot look regularly at

television without being reminded that he lives in a cosmopolitan, international world.

What is unfortunate is that this uncritical acceptance of the fact that life (and especially entertainment) takes place in a global setting may lead to unexamined assumptions about the nature of this world and its peoples. Since these have not been carefully considered by the child nor related to his growing understanding of himself and his universe, they tend simply to be added to his stock of unsorted and frequently conflicting impressions and concepts.

In summary, then, the results of this casual and unreflective exposure to international scenes, to worldwide happenings, to the world's peoples and customs, and to global problems are the development of a rudimentary but superficial awareness of and acquaintance with these phenomena; the increasing of the child's apprehensions and anxieties as he confronts the world's miseries and woes; and, overall, the creation of a critical educational need.

Television creates need for critical discrimination. Because the child has been subjected through television to a hodgepodge miscellany of international experiences, fragmentary and unsorted, he needs desperately to develop and apply a critical, logical approach to the assessment of his experiences and a rationale by which to interpret them. It is imperative that he become conscious of the influence which television programs have upon his thinking, his behavior, and his values. He must learn to assess the credibility and authenticity of the material which television presents. It must become a habit for the youngster to examine each new idea and concept gained from the TV set, and to compare it with previous information and generalizations acquired from firsthand experience, from reading, from his associates, and from the teachings of his church or synagogue. He needs to formulate standards by which to weigh the quality and importance of what he sees and hears. And, finally, it is necessary that he construct a framework, a world view, which will enable him to place in perspective all the global incidents and events with which he is confronted.

TELEVISION CAN BE USED DELIBERATELY AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL TOOL

It should be clear, at this point, that since practically all American children are exposed to the world scene through television viewing, if the proper programs were aired they could provide a starting point in efforts to foster the growth of international understanding. It also

strongly suggests that this exposure creates a vital need for encouraging the development of critical discrimination toward television programs as sources of experience, on the part of the child or young person. But, beyond this, the television medium can also be used deliberately as an indispensable instructional tool in a planned program for encouraging world-mindedness. It provides an abundance of ready-made, illustrative material.

Programs of this nature are to be found on commercial stations and on noncommercial, educational stations. Most of such broadcasts are produced and distributed nationwide by the national television networks; namely, the National Broadcasting Company (NBC), the Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS), and the American Broadcasting Company (ABC)—representing commercial television—and National Educational Television (NET)—the noncommercial, educational network. Additionally, many local stations occasionally produce programs of this type. And the development and improvement of communication satellites will further increase the amount of international material available to home viewers.

COMMUNICATION SATELLITES PRESENT BOTH OPPORTUNITY AND CHALLENGE

Man-made communication satellites now span the oceans separating the continents, making possible the instantaneous relaying of television signals (color or black and white) from any part of the world to any other. This capability is being used today to bring to American viewers spectacular and historic events—the fighting in Vietnam, the investiture of the Prince of Wales, the Olympic games—and brief commentaries, reports, and interviews by network newsmen stationed abroad.

The continuing expansion and technological improvement of satellite systems will be accompanied by dramatic developments in international communication. The number of channels will be greatly increased to accommodate the varied functions—television, radio, telephone, data networks, facsimile. The strength of signals will be multiplied enormously as power sources are improved; for example, as nuclear energy supplements or replaces solar energy. This will make possible the reception of signals by smaller and less costly receiving installations: first, by community facilities and, later, by home units.

The first step, now immediately ahead, involves the reception of relayed signals by community facilities which will feed local and

regional communication distributors—telephone and data handling companies, radio and television stations, and cable companies. This development is certain to have revolutionary impact upon the developing nations. India, for example, is to inaugurate such a system in 1972. It will make feasible nationwide communication networks relaying television and radio programs as well as providing for telephone and data services. Villages, towns, and cities, no matter how remote, will be able to see and hear identical messages, to share the same vicarious experiences. Mountains, deserts, and jungles no longer will be barriers to the flow of intelligence from one part of a country to another.

As instantaneous communication is established with the masses of people in village centers, coffee houses, schools, cooperatives, and communes, four results can safely be predicted. In the first place, there will be a rapid decline in the prevailing provincialism bringing with it both broadened horizons and an unsettling breakdown in traditional values. Second, there will be rising expectancies for higher living standards and, also, for greater participation in political, economic, and social decision making. In the third place, expanded communication will motivate the drive for literacy, providing the much-needed spark to power literacy campaigns. Viewers will have forcefully brought home to them the immeasurable personal benefits that flow from the ability to read, write, and cipher. Finally, television and radio will make possible a vast extension of education: the capable few teaching the needy many.

Once each nation has interconnected its telecommunication facilities by means of satellites, the international exchange of information and programs becomes feasible and inevitable. Events, personalities, and cultural experiences from the world around can become common possessions of people everywhere. Clearly, citizens of developing nations, as well as those living in the industrialized countries, will have more and more exposure to the world outside, with all the concomitant benefits and problems.

The later stage, direct satellite to home, predicted perhaps conservatively for 1985, will involve the direct reception of electronic signals by home receivers. Such signals will not only include television sound and pictures, but also computer and data bank impulses, facsimile hard copies, and other message forms not presently developed. The great advantages of this stage are (a) wide range of choice resulting from the multiplicity of channels on each of the numerous orbiting bodies and (b) broadened opportunity from the varied international sources from which these signals come. There

will be channels for education in many languages and presumably at numerous levels, providing sundry types of experience. There will not only be multimedia instruction (via hard-copy print, film, still pictures, and TV) but provision will also be made for interaction of learners by electronic means — a combination of computer-assisted instruction and correspondence education.

The possibilities are enormous and inspiring. But there is also a tremendous challenge. After all, the full potentialities of technology are not automatically achieved. They must be brought into reality through the dedicated efforts of educational leaders. For there are very real barriers to the full educational use of communication satellites, and these obstructions are man-made. As Arthur C. Clarke, well-known science fiction-fact writer, pointed out in a syndicated Sunday supplement article early in 1970, "The limitations are not technical, but economic and political." And, one might add, social. Our major concern here is with the use of these orbital bodies to broaden exposure to and stimulate interaction with events, cultures, and peoples of other lands. What is the present situation and what does the future appear to promise?

At the present time the use of these facilities is minimal; they are by no means being exploited to their full potential as the means for international interchange of human experience. Before satellite communications, TV viewers were already being shown important events and were sitting in on significant news reports and interviews from global scenes of action with a lag of only a few hours, thanks to the speed of jet aircraft which brought program material on film or videotape from distant points. Even now, the bulk of foreign program material is brought to the United States by plane and not by INTELSAT. Only where immediacy is of prime importance is use made of this instrumentality, and then, usually, only for short periods of time.

The primary reason for the drastically limited use of this capability is its present high cost, even though this has been substantially reduced between 1965 and 1969. Constructing the satellite itself, placing it in exact orbit, and building and maintaining the massive transmission and receiving facilities require a large financial outlay. This, in turn, leads to the setting of a rather steep scale of charges for the use of its communication channels. Broadcasters, therefore, make use of it only for the unusual situation where time is a critical factor; for example, when there is perishable news involved which cannot wait for plane transportation. It is believed that new orbital bodies will continue to be developed with many more communica-

tion channels and with greater power potentials. This should make possible even lower costs, and therefore expanded use.

In an article reviewing the problem of European satellite rates, Piero Fanti, the Director-General of TELESPIAZIO (Società per Azioni per le Comunicazioni Spaziali), raises questions regarding the type of program material likely to be relayed by these orbiting bodies:

Is satellite live telecasting confined mainly to news coverage of special events? Could one hope to include entertainment via satellite one day? Substantial scepticism has been expressed by broadcasters in this respect, as there is no reason for the simultaneous broadcasting of normal entertainment. Is the useable "window of tv viewing hours," with the time difference between Europe and the US such that service will remain within the present boundaries? And what about the eternal language problem? . . .

The common feeling is that tariff levels have not prevented any important satellite tv transmissions, although their duration may well have been affected. . . . We believe that in the news area the daily use of satellites lies within the field of realistic expectations

The possibility of extending the field of live coverage seems to rest also upon the inventiveness and creativeness of the program people. . . .⁶

But the ready availability of satellite communication at reasonable cost will not in itself lead to a many-fold increase in the amount of international subject matter carried on American television. There are more complex barriers to the easy flow of human experience across national and cultural boundaries. The most obvious one is the difference in language from one country to another. Even more fundamental are the differences in cultural background. Finally, the matter of viewer preference is an important factor.

The language barrier in itself is a formidable obstruction to the exchange of program material from one country to another. It would simply make no sense for an American network to carry a program produced for local consumption by Nippon Hoso Kyokai (NHK, the Japanese Broadcasting Corporation) with all the speaking in Japanese or to relay a program completely in French from L'Office de Radiodiffusion-Télévision Française (ORTF, the French Radio-Television Office) nor, for that matter, to air programs without change from Spain, the Soviet Union, or West Germany. Obviously for these

⁶ Fanti, Piero. "European Satellite Rates for Television Service." *EBU Review* 118B: 39; November 1969.

programs to be useable there must be commentary in English (for sports events, public ceremonies, newsworthy happenings, concerts) and, if the program features an address or discussion, there must be simultaneous translation. Further, some programs, notably drama, automatically eliminate themselves for casual pickup, since they are basically speech and therefore require elaborate translation and the use of voice dubbings or visual subtitles.

The language barrier has been overcome, however, in some areas. Western European broadcasting organizations have been exchanging television programs among themselves for well over a decade through a collaborative effort termed *Eurovision*. Briefly, in this system, the television picture is picked up and distributed by the broadcasting organization of the country from which the program originates. Thence the picture is carried unchanged from one nation to another through the broadcast facilities of each country through which it passes, in spite of some differences in technical picture standards. Ultimately the picture reaches the viewers through their own broadcasting organization. But the commentary and any necessary translation are supplied by each country's own television announcer from the place of the event, describing and interpreting the action from the standpoint of the viewers in his own country. The programs which are exchanged in this fashion consist of unusual public events, of sports, of music, and of such visual entertainment as circuses and vaudeville acts. Even so, the amount of programming so exchanged is only a small fraction, perhaps two to five hours weekly, of each country's television fare.

The second difficulty—cultural differences—is not to be dismissed lightly. Relaying, unchanged, programs from other English-speaking countries to the United States has not, in general, been effective with American audiences, and this in spite of the common historical and literary heritage which has accompanied the use of the English language.

School broadcasters in countries of the British Commonwealth, Canada, Great Britain, and Australia not too many years ago experimented with the interchange of radio programs for schools, with the aim of illuminating and explaining differences among the peoples of these countries and emphasizing the common inheritance, for the benefit of boys and girls in the middle grades. The broadcasters of each country planned, produced, and recorded programs about their nation and people and shipped them off to the other countries for broadcast. But to their considerable surprise, the programs proved ineffective, if not, indeed, harmful. Accents were a problem, the

children finding the speech differences laughable, but even more, the boys and girls simply could not share in the experiences because of the many small cultural differences which interfered with basic understanding.

These examples took place a number of years ago and adults and children today may be more sophisticated about their peers in other countries. Also, the medium was radio, and it can be argued that the visual aspects of television make a program exchange far easier. Some people are even talking about a common visual language bridging the cultural gap. One can point to the many American programs (chiefly westerns, adventures, and crime series) which are staple items in the broadcast fare not only of English-speaking countries, but, with dubbing or subtitles, of most of the television-equipped nations of the world. In these programs the emphasis is upon action and upon the simplified clash of good and evil—elements common to all cultures. These programs, in the eyes of the world, constitute a kind of American folklore to be enjoyed as entertainment but not to be taken too seriously for any “message” they might convey. What they accomplish in incidental fashion is to implant a distorted picture of American life and values which interferes with, rather than fosters, a more realistic understanding. And one can point, also, to a number of British syndicated programs, also of the adventure type, which are carried both here and in other countries. Finally, a positive example is the *Forsyte Saga*, produced by the British Broadcasting Corporation, which is having a successful run on the educational television stations affiliated with National Educational Television (NET) in the United States.

Personalities in the entertainment world often become international figures appearing on television both in their own country and abroad. David Frost, for example, has regular television series both in Britain and the United States. His success in both ventures points to the fact that universal elements of appeal can override cultural differences between peoples. It should be noted, however, that the same program is not viewed in the two countries; Frost adapts each series to its particular constituency.

Nevertheless, other than entertainment, few programs are interchanged intact among English-speaking countries. There is *Intertel*, a cooperative arrangement among the British Broadcasting Corporation, the Australian Broadcasting Commission, the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, and, in the United States, the Westinghouse stations (Group W) and National Educational Television. But this organization is fully conscious of the problems involved in the

simple exchange of programs. Instead, programs are planned jointly with the needs and special conditions of each country in mind, and production is then assigned to a particular broadcasting organization. Sometimes the personnel engaged in the actual production include persons drawn from the other organizations. Clearly, thought and preparation are necessary for productive exchange of broadcasts among nations.

For the most part, the American networks handle international broadcasts by themselves, originating programs or program segments directly from the scene of action in other countries. What they convey by their careful selection of picture and sound and by their narration is an American interpretation of the event or the cultural happening or the foreign notable, as they view, narrate, comment, or interview. Unquestionably this makes the material more palatable to American audiences and places the strange, the unfamiliar, and the alien within a comprehensible framework. That it may also distort reality as it passes these experiences through the filter of traditional American customs and values is a very real danger. Indeed, in times of international crisis, this process may prevent Americans from viewing it "like it is" because they see and hear not the event itself but rather an interpretation of it by conscious or unconscious selection reflecting accepted or official viewpoints.

This presents a great challenge to educators. If there is value in viewing programs that are not American produced, then educators must increase interest and awareness on the part of the public so that such programs will be viewed in larger numbers. However, the following questions arise: If the quantity of programs produced abroad is increased through the use of satellites or videotape, will audiences respond in sufficient numbers to support such ventures? Will Americans welcome news and documentaries presented by English-speaking foreign broadcasters? Will they tune in to cultural programs coming directly from other nations with minimal American mediation? Will pooled coverage of special events, sports, and entertainment utilizing American narrators in the manner of Eurovision be successful in attracting viewers in the United States?

It appears that for such extraordinary events as space exploration and international games joint or pooled coverage is the accepted practice. But for less spectacular programs the problem is one of attracting sufficient viewers to justify the use of the facilities. At the moment the prospects are not highly encouraging.

A few avid fans of things international will indeed avail themselves frequently of the opportunity to sample foreign broadcasts,

but the overwhelming bulk of the American people probably will continue to seek entertainment and enlightenment from familiar U. S.-originated programs. How do we know? We have the parallel of international radio broadcasts—shortwave—to guide us, plus, of course, what we know about American tastes and habits. Consider the situation.

Programs available via satellite to home viewers will be those which have been transmitted to the appropriate satellite, covering the United States, by the broadcasting organizations in the various countries. These will not be domestic programs to which one can casually tune. They will be specially tailored for the particular foreign audience to which they are directed, just as shortwave radio broadcasts of the Voice of America, Radio Japan, Radio Moscow, the BBC are fashioned for audiences in particular areas of the world. There will be programs aplenty in English (what country does not wish to influence the people in the world's most powerful nation?) but these will be carefully prepared to convey the "proper" images of the sending countries and the "appropriate" official messages. One will not be able to tune to these foreign-originated programs for an unbiased sample of the life and customs of the nations represented. Instead, the broadcasts could be used to sample what these countries are presenting as their viewpoints on current happenings, or to observe the carefully selected samples of their life and culture as they put their best foot forward.

It is very easy to deceive ourselves into believing that with satellite communication there will be abundant interchange of information and programs among nations so that not only will Americans learn more about other countries and peoples, but other countries, in turn, will become better acquainted with the United States. Certainly this is the goal. For example, in a recent article, Leonard Marks (Chairman of the INTELSAT Conference, February-March, 1969), who is well informed on the possibilities opened up by the communication satellites, admonishes us:

We must use the satellite to exchange ideas among countries with different ideologies and different languages. Satellites can bridge oceans, cross impenetrable mountain ranges and jungles, and seek out the otherwise inaccessible.

I can think of no more important first step we can take toward reducing world tensions than that of broadening the communications links between powerful nations representing different political systems.

We should not rely just on a few hot lines. We will all be better

off when we have thousands of cool lines linking us – the big and the small, the rich and the poor, the powerful and the weak.

But Mr. Marks formerly headed the United States Information Agency and is well aware of the problems associated with the interchange of ideas. Thus he closes his article with "a word of caution":

"Freedom of information" is technically possible anywhere in the world. There is no reason why information cannot flow through all lands like the breeze after a monsoon rain. But it does not. There are large areas of our world where governments have imposed restrictions on the right of its citizens to read foreign publications, and to listen to radio and television programs originating beyond their borders.

In this advanced age of technology, there are even some countries which jam the radio programs of other countries, and impose criminal penalties on those who "hear the other side." Before we become too enthusiastic about the wonders of communications satellites, we are sobered by the realization that communications cables can be cut, and that satellites can be jammed. In radio or television the finest program service will be wasted in outer space unless the listener or viewer on the receiving end has the opportunity and the desire to tune his set to receive the transmission. It takes two parties to complete a telephone call. I cannot tell you my side of the story unless you agree to listen – and all of us should do more listening and less talking.

Let us heed the warning – communication is the life line of civilization – we must never sever the link! ⁷

Here, again, the long-time challenge to educators is to plan and develop the use of satellite communications so that there will be an enormous quantity of information and programming available from all parts of the globe to people everywhere. Universal languages will need to be selected, for satellites with all their potential cannot operate on the basis of the hundreds of existing languages and dialects needed to reach every cultural group. Cultural barriers will need to be surmounted to the point where the universals of human experience can be communicated and understood. The use of political obstacles – jamming and the war of words, pictures, and ideas – will need to be moderated if not halted completely. The final problem area involves international copyright laws. General problems arise from the fact that two separate conventions – the Universal

⁷ Marks, Leonard H. "Communications Satellites – A Launch Vehicle for International Understanding." *EBU Review* 118B: 55: November 1969.

Copyright Convention and the Berne Convention—each claim world-wide scope in this area. To be effective, these conventions should act coordinately rather than competitively. A link between their actions needs to be established. Satellite transmissions also involve more particular copyright difficulties. Typical questions they raise include: (a) what kind of copyright protection, if any, pertains today to satellite transmissions under existing treaties; (b) what kind of protection *should* pertain if and when treaties are revised; (c) what measure of control should receiving states have over unwanted satellite broadcasts; and (d) how can materials be made accessible to developing nations with the least amount of red tape and impediments. UNESCO has been involved in the last area by helping to determine the degree to which developing nations may use copyrighted materials. An international mechanism must be set up to permit developing countries to obtain greater access to these materials. Developed and developing nations alike have a tremendous need for materials that can be transmitted by satellite communications, because, in the long run, *all* nations of the world are *developing* nations and need to share their scientific, cultural, and human resources with each other. Therefore, international copyright laws which expedite this sharing of resources are essential.

These are formidable tasks but their gradual accomplishment must go hand in hand with the development of the mechanism which makes abundant international communication possible. They must be given urgent priorities for 1970, the International Education Year, and for the years ahead. Enlarged capability must be matched by increased capacity and disposition to take advantage of such opportunities.

Another development likely to expand rapidly in the immediate future is cable television (CATV or community antenna television). Developed originally to provide hard-to-reach areas with good television signals, it is now becoming popular because it extends the range of choice of viewers beyond the few stations available locally. It provides additional programs from more distant stations and increasingly will be offering programs from other sources including, no doubt, international material from satellites. The problems involved will become very complex as the number of programs available from other parts of the world multiplies. Even with more cable channels, the CATV operators will have to make choices among the abundant offerings—deciding among countries of program origin and decisions, willy-nilly, involving political positions. And the matters of performing rights and compensation, and of copyrights will become

increasingly sticky. It seems likely, therefore, that in the period immediately ahead the subscribers to cable television will have extended opportunities to view international programs. The longer view is less certain, however, as political, economic, and social factors begin to cloud the picture bringing restriction as well as opportunity to viewers by cable.

EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES SERVED BY TELEVISION USE

With television, commercial and educational, bringing a seeming abundance of international experience to viewers, teachers can use it for a variety of educational purposes.

1. *To illustrate variety and difference in customs, cultures, and peoples.* The child's experience in the social studies classroom may often seem dull and lifeless because it is so dependent upon abstract exposition in textbooks and even in reference material. To be effective, concepts, generalizations, and certainly attitudes must be related to, and preferably, grow out of, life situations involving interaction among people and between people and environmental factors. Still pictures, filmstrips, slides, and recordings help to bring seeming reality into the classroom, and films, with their capacity for conveying action, are even better. But television programs, suggested for home viewing, or recorded on videotape and used in the classroom or carrel, have the advantage of being current. Also, they have a remarkable semblance of reality, and they carry the impact of the ongoing, real world. They are ideally suited to bring to learners living manifestations and representations of other cultures and customs as embodied in the behaviors and products of other peoples.

There is a wealth of this kind of content on television. There are travelogues and geographic series such as some of the programs in Walt Disney's *Wonderful World of Color* (NBC); the National Geographic series as represented by *Siberia*; *The Endless Horizon* (CBS); *Discovery* (ABC); *The Untamed World of Jacques Cousteau*; and occasional CBS news specials, for example, *The Japanese*, broadcast in April of 1969. Frequently there are segments of programs that present this type of material as on *International Magazine* (NET) and *First Tuesday* (NBC). Programs originated by museums, or series devoted to art, often deal with cultural artifacts — man's expression of his culture and values in painting, sculpture, pottery, fabrics, architecture, and the like. *Camera Three* (CBS) often treats of such matters. Finally, travelers and world figures are frequently interviewed on such network series as *Today* (NBC) or on local stations, and they often display examples of foreign customs and culture.

2. *To bring history to life.* Television programs can also be used to make the study of history a concerned examination of human interaction rather than a preoccupation with places, battles, rulers, and dates. Series, helpful in this effort, are not so common—they must be sought out. When they are encountered they should be recorded on videotape for later reuse. Some individual programs of this type are sure to become available soon for classroom use on the new EVR (Electronic Video Recorder) at nominal cost.

There appear to be two types of these programs: those which are conscientious attempts to re-enact history, and programs presented as serious drama which deal with historical events, personalities, and settings. In the past the first type has been represented by *You Are There* (CBS), *Victory at Sea* (NBC), and occasional commemorative programs dealing with aspects of World Wars I and II, with Hiroshima and Nagasaki, with the Nuremberg trials, with the Soviet revolution. The second is illustrated by some of the plays in such series as the *Hallmark Hall of Fame* and the great drama series on NET.

3. *To confront and examine personalities affecting international events.* The world scene is not merely the resultant of the play of events, influences, and trends. It is also affected by extraordinary personalities who have had a hand in shaping history and molding institutions and nations in accordance with their outlook and will. A comprehensive world view must take into account such forceful figures and assess their place in man's continuing struggle. Television, from time to time, presents both series and individual special programs built around historical personages, some contemporary and some recalled from the past. Franklin D. Roosevelt, Winston Churchill, Joseph Stalin, John Kennedy, Lyndon Johnson, Adolf Hitler, Napoleon Bonaparte—the list is endless. The living are presented through in-depth interviews probing their acts, their motivations, their perception of events, their viewpoints and philosophies, which are supplemented by film and tape, by the comments of their contemporaries, and by selections from their writings and public utterances. Those from the past are analyzed and their acts re-created through film, through pictures, through carefully selected material from the records of what they said and did, and through an assessment of the effects of this upon their contemporaries and upon the course of history.

Here, again, is the clear need to record on videotape such programs for later use, simply because they are infrequent. There is always advance notice of such broadcasts, and thus plenty of time to make the necessary arrangements for recording. Before such recording

takes place, the conditions imposed by copyright laws must be met, either through permission, paying of royalties, or other procedures. It is true that some of these series are later released and made available to schools in film form. When such films are purchased or become conveniently available, the videotapes can be erased and reused. Meanwhile they have given service while they were current and topical.

4. *To sensitize to current international problems.* International understanding involves a recognition of constant and recurring conflict between and among nations and peoples with different modes of living, resources, traditions, and values. It is necessary to become aware of current international problems and to be sensitive to their implications. Television can be of great assistance in this task.

Daily news programs and weekly summaries presented by networks and local stations are the most obvious sources for ascertaining what problems and conflicts are currently newsworthy. Learners can be encouraged to view at least one such program daily and to report on the nature of the problems and on current developments with relation to them. However, there will need to be much winnowing of the grain from the chaff, of the significant from the merely interest-provoking, of items of international import from happenings of purely local concern. And learners will need to compare news resources: one network with another, local with network, television with newspapers, news magazines with television and newspapers.

5. *To explore international problems in depth.* Once alerted to global problems, international tensions, and clashes between nations, the need arises for vital, current material to afford exploration in depth. Television provides this in considerable quantity. It is more up-to-date than pamphlets or news magazines, to say nothing of reference books; it has the impact of involving people in the telling, rather than cold expository print; and it is visual and oral, not requiring skill in analytical reading. There are two sorts of television programs that furnish this kind of source material: documentaries, and panel interviews and discussions.

INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION PROVIDES DIRECT HELP

If a school is located in the coverage area of one of the nearly 200 noncommercial educational television stations or if the school is connected to a cable television service (CATV, Community Antenna

Television) or if it is part of a closed-circuit or Instructional Television Fixed Service system, it is quite likely that among the instructional series available will be one or more aimed directly or peripherally at the development of international understanding. A recent survey by the writer and a staff associate, Joe Townsley, turned up a surprising number of such series carried in the United States. Some of these are syndicated, being distributed by National Instructional Television⁸ or by the Great Plains National Instructional Television Library⁹. But many others are produced locally as a basic part of the ongoing curriculum of the schools or to enrich classroom instruction. In Great Britain, too, such programs are made available to schools both by the British Broadcasting Corporation and by Independent Television. Richard Postgate, Controller of Educational Broadcasting for the British Broadcasting Corporation, recently told the writer that his organization was "constantly being asked to do this sort of thing" and also to deal with the growing need for "racial harmony," the latter certainly an area closely related to international understanding.

There appear to be two approaches which instructional television takes in assisting schools in nurturing world-mindedness on the part of children and young people. One is a direct, out-and-out course in international understanding in which goals are identified, appropriate learning activities are delineated in relation to functional content, and broadcasts are tailored to stimulate and motivate such activities on the part of the learners. In general this approach is rejected by instructional broadcasters both here and abroad as "preachy" and ineffective. The second approach to international understanding is conceived as a long-time process which takes place as the learner interacts with situations involving international cultural elements. The role of instructional television is to offer carefully selected experiences which contain these elements to be presented in a stimulating and motivating manner throughout the school years.

The survey revealed a paucity of imaginative and creative efforts, and a tendency for most series dealing with international content to get bogged down in prosaic, conventional detail. However, it also

⁸ National Instructional Television Center, Box A, Bloomington, Ind. 47401, a nonprofit organization, develops and makes available television materials for elementary, secondary, higher, and continuing education.

⁹ Great Plains National Instructional Television Library, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebr. 68508, distributes selected quality instructional television series that have been produced by local ITV organizations.

revealed a great variety in approaches from the casually incidental, through presentation as a basic part of a regular course, to the offering of supplementary enrichment to be used by teachers as they are able to fit it into their ongoing programs.

The Casual, Incidental Approach. One of the more common ways of exposing children in school to international happenings is through a weekly or more frequent broadcast of news to classrooms, usually at the intermediate and/or middle school levels. A second rather common example of this casual approach is in television courses designed primarily for foreign language teaching, most often Spanish, sometimes French and German. But, the producers assert, these courses contain much cultural material leading to a better understanding of the people associated with the language, and their customs, mores, and values.

International Understanding as Part of Regular Course. Certain courses have traditionally dealt with other areas, other nations, and other peoples. Unfortunately, however, the treatment of the remote and far away has not always led to better understanding nor to attitudes and behaviors appropriate to today's world. Indeed, children have sometimes acquired a set of harmful stereotypes from their experiences in these school subjects. Emphasis has often been placed upon a mass of details, upon a set of fixed concepts—so-called understandings—and upon the acquisition of, no doubt, useful skills, but all in a sterile, often dull setting. Under such conditions boys and girls are not likely to become enthusiastic about things new and foreign, but rather to acquire an active dislike toward the whole field. Instructional television, called upon to implement an ongoing curriculum, may find itself reenforcing this same type of nonfunctional learning. On the other hand, fortunately, television may be used to enliven and make meaningful and relevant courses treating international content.

The Direct Presentation of International Cultural Experiences. Instructional broadcasters have prepared and telecast many series on varied grade levels which comprise basic international cultural content, in the hope that teachers would make use of these programs in the classrooms to supplement and enrich the experience of their pupils.

This leads to a characteristic, frustrating dilemma of school television. If international experiences are broadcast within the framework of existing, regular courses they are likely to be overwhelmed by the mass of other "necessary" and "required" material so as to occupy

only a minimal, even obscure part of the course and related classroom activity. On the other hand, if a direct approach is taken with a series devoted to carefully selected international content, but not planned as a part of a particular course, then, no matter how significant the subject matter nor how artistic and exciting the presentation, it is apt to be ignored by the busy teacher intent on "covering" the course of study and/or textbook or on preparing his students to pass end-of-term examinations. Nevertheless, an impressive number of apparently valuable broadcast series are being offered throughout the country, many of which are widely syndicated, in the hope that alert and sensitive teachers will find ways to make use of them. The proportion of classrooms actually exposed to these various offerings, however, is almost certainly rather small in relation to the overwhelming need.

The examples of direct approaches are quite varied. They include:

1. Presenting the culture and people related to a particular language.
2. Dealing with a particular mode of artistic expression or with a variety of cultural phenomena.
3. Examining the culture of various ethnic groups.
4. Providing a direct exposure to "international people" representing their home countries. The usual format of such programs is that of a continuing host who brings a different guest each week. Sometimes the interviewers include a panel of children or young people representing the classroom audience.
5. Focusing on a single aspect of human activity and examining it as it is exhibited in various countries.
6. Devoting a series to the United Nations and the various international organizations.
7. Playing the simulation game of international relations. This has been played through the cooperative broadcasts of stations on the Eastern Educational network. The programs are produced by the Educational Division of Station WGBH-TV, Boston, in cooperation with the Twenty-One Inch Classroom; the School Services Department of WCNY, Syracuse; the School District of Philadelphia; the Tri-State Instructional Broadcasting Council; WHYY, Philadelphia; and the Eastern Educational Network. In 1969 the game, *Crisis: Congo*, was carried on in five broadcasts. The action was placed in the year 1975 and involved confrontation and negotiations among the United States, Red China, and Soviet Russia over the two Congos in Africa. The schools (and TV stations) were divided into three regions so that each represented one of the contending countries. The programs in-

volved negotiations among these nations with the political representatives being instructed by votes from the various viewing schools as the action developed from broadcast to broadcast. Students in the viewing classrooms were furnished background material on the changing situation from 1969 to 1975, watched the negotiations on each half-hour program, listened to their representatives' discussions, debated alternatives in their classrooms, and then cast a class vote to guide the actions of their team. This combination of simulation, which secured active student involvement, and television, which made possible participation of many schools, brought international diplomacy and conflict among nations out of cold print into lifelike reality.

Instructional Television Not Fully Meeting the Need. The varied contributions being made to classrooms by instructional television, as just delineated, present a mixed picture. Certainly there are advantages to this method of introducing boys and girls to international experiences; there are also serious limitations.

The advantages are quite apparent. In the first place these television materials may be viewed in the classroom setting with a minimum of inconvenience. In the elementary school it is usually possible to arrange the daily schedule so that a program may be watched in relation to the appropriate ongoing learning activities. High schools, presumably, can record the program on a portable videotape recorder as it is broadcast, and then feed it to the interested classrooms over the school's closed-circuit system at the time it is desired. Or, more conventionally, the series will be scheduled at several times so that the broadcasts may be picked up conveniently when the classes are in session. Programs not intended for schools, on the contrary, have to be suggested for home viewing, or, perhaps, videotaped at an often inconvenient "at home" time and played back later in class time.

The second advantage is that instructional television programs can be carefully planned and tailored to accomplish international understanding objectives. Not only can such broadcasts be offered as good learning experiences in themselves, they can be related to suggested classroom activities which will further reinforce the learning.

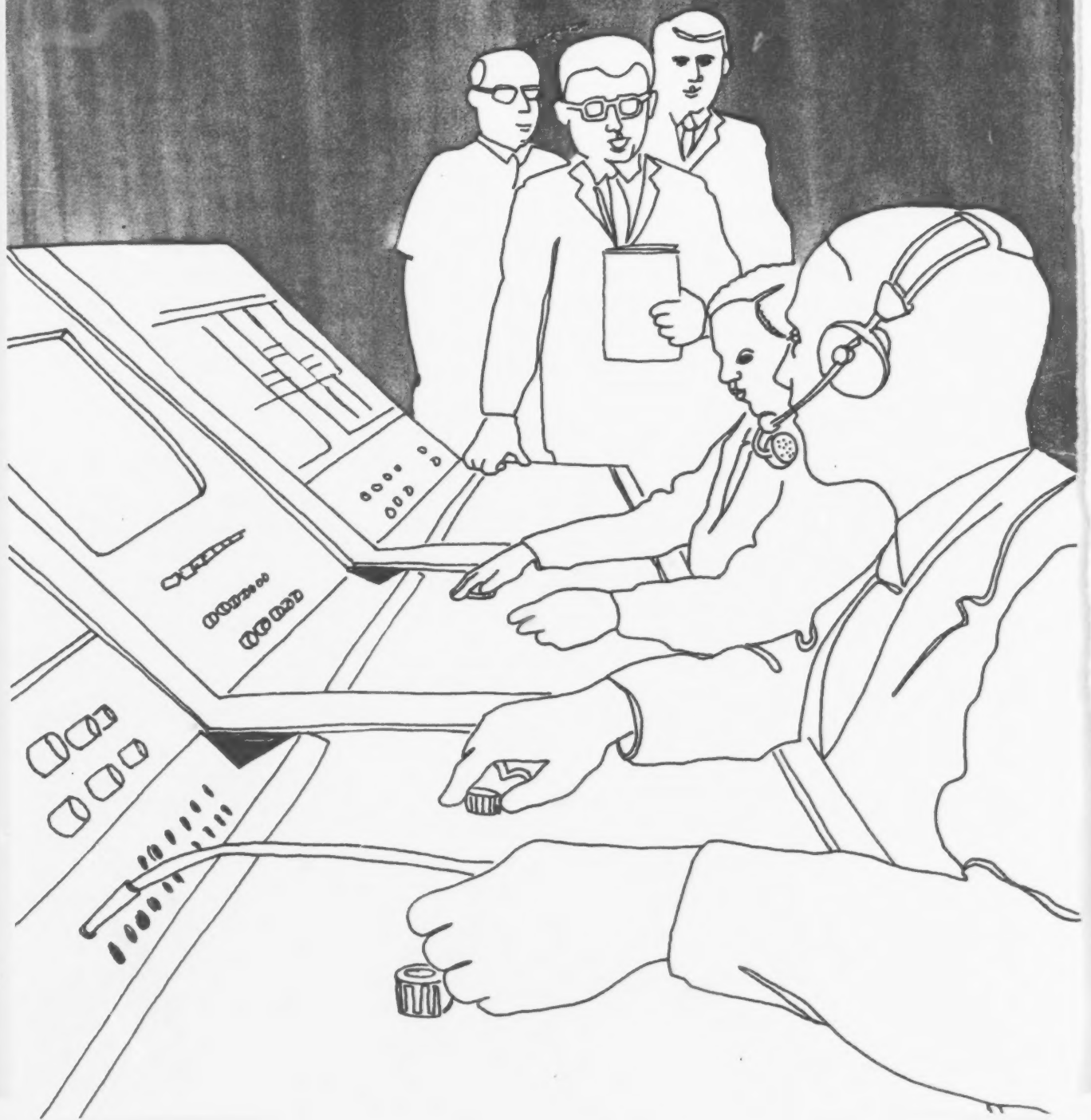
Thirdly, instructional broadcasts can be pitched on a level appropriate to the receiving classrooms. They can be designed to appeal to the interests of the youngsters and to meet their recognized, developing needs. The ideas can be expressed both aurally and visually in ways understandable at the particular maturity level. Even the vocabulary can be chosen in terms of the viewers.

On the other hand there are serious handicaps under which this sort of instructional broadcasting operates. An important limitation which affects so much of this type of effort is budgetary. With sparse funds, school systems and educational stations "make do" with programs which make use of a minimum of exciting, realistic objects and visuals. This is especially detrimental in the field of the international where people, artifacts representing their customs and cultures, and films and pictures taken abroad are almost essential if children and young people are to confront the new and the different in stimulating and challenging ways. Good programs use varied techniques, not just a teacher on camera; they feature international participants; they use an abundance of film and pictures; and they exhibit many examples of the products of the regions, the countries, and the cultures under consideration.

Educators should carefully assess the role that instructional broadcasting can play in the development of world-mindedness from pre-school ages through high school in order that it may be employed to its maximum effectiveness. Instructional broadcasters, working with curriculum makers and teachers, should consider most carefully the nature of broadcasts to be offered. Finally, classroom teachers should give additional attention to television as a means for furthering international understanding and avail themselves appropriately of its various forms: out-of-school programs on commercial and educational stations and instructional programs accessible in the particular area.

The next section of this bulletin will present a general plan for making use of television in this important endeavor. It will attempt to implement this plan by suggesting in more detail appropriate learning activities at various levels involving this communications medium. It is believed that more effective programs for fostering world-mindedness are possible today because of the universality of television in American culture.

IV
PROPOSED GENERAL PLAN
FOR USING TELEVISION
TO FOSTER WORLD-MINDEDNESS



Previous sections of this bulletin have provided background material with relation both to the need for world understanding and to the role that television can play in this process. But it is important that these various suggestions be incorporated in a general plan for using television in the systematic development of international understanding throughout the school years. Thus matters are not left to chance; implementation can be provided for through the regular instructional program. Such a program will be helpful to curriculum planners as they assess the need and develop appropriate ways for achieving the broad objectives involved in fostering world-mindedness. The plan should certainly be of value to teachers who are the ones who must help devise and then make any such program effective with boys and girls. And it should provide guidance to instructional broadcasters as they seek to enrich and enliven the curriculum with vital vicarious experiences involving international content.

STRATEGIES/APPROACHES INVOLVED IN THE PLAN

It seems clear from the detailed examination which has been made of the influence of television and of its potentialities that a general educational plan involving the medium aimed at the growth of international understanding will necessarily consist of four strategies/approaches: (a) incidental discussion of unusual international affairs as these are encountered by learners; (b) television used to illuminate and illustrate ongoing classroom instruction involving international content; (c) television systematically examined and assessed as a source of international experience; and (d) instructional television programs planned and broadcast to implement classroom instruction. The proposed plan provides for these four strategies/approaches and indicates appropriate levels and subject areas, as well as suggesting the responsibilities which each approach involves. (A chart indicating these major points of the plan appears on pages 76-77.) It is sufficiently flexible to be adopted in whole or in part, by a consortia, one school system, or an individual school. Additionally, any classroom teacher on his own may follow one or another of the approaches

in his own teaching situation. But before examining the general plan, it would be well to consider a set of principles which were used in its development.

PRINCIPLES REFLECTED IN THE PLAN

Ten guiding principles were followed in laying out the suggested general plan for relating television to the development of international understanding. These guidelines were evolved from the material already presented. Thus it is hoped that the program is consistent with what is known about the impact of television upon children and young people and about the need for a world view due both to the critical global situation and to what happens to the child as he grows up. It is believed, too, that the plan recognizes the reality of what goes on in school classrooms, of what television has to offer, and of what teachers can do to make teaching-learning effective.

1. *Television is conceived as a conditioning factor in shaping the child's world.* The plan assumes that the child has been exposed to years of television viewing when he begins his school career, and that he continues to watch it throughout his school years. Further, it takes into account the impact that this has had and will continue to have as it thus conditions the child's view of the world and its peoples.

2. *Television is conceived as an adjunct; it is not the primary factor in the school's instructional program in world affairs.* The plan not only takes for granted that adjustment must be made to the fact of television; it proposes that TV be harnessed to help in the process of achieving the objectives in the international field. Even so, it is not the center of the learning procedure, but rather it is an adjunct to the mainstream of instruction. It provides raw material of experience to be made use of in the interaction of the classroom. It is one of a number of educational media and materials which furnish content to nurture growth.

3. *The teacher has the key role in the child's development of a world viewpoint.* It is abundantly clear that nothing in the school situation is so important in affecting the child's growth in understandings and attitudes as is his teacher. This instructional leader sets the climate which encourages or inhibits free expression. He controls the environment which fosters or stultifies learning. He plays an essential part in the planning of related instructional television series. He arranges the conditions which make intellectual and emotional growth possible; he provides the materials of instruc-

tion; he manages the learning situations. While the child should become increasingly self-directive in his learning efforts, his very opportunity to become so is made possible in large measure by the teacher. Thus the proposed plan is based on the assumption that meaningful activities leading to global understanding will take place in the classroom and beyond, as the teacher motivates interaction with the experiences which television has furnished.

4. *Education for international understanding must begin as soon as possible and continue throughout the years of schooling.* Since the child has already developed a world view before he enters upon his formal schooling, it is essential that the broadening and "correcting" of this viewpoint be begun as early as possible. Provision should be made for the start of the program in the kindergarten, and it should be continued in some form throughout the years the child is in school. Since he goes on confronting things international, both first-hand and through the mass media, his opportunity to weigh and interpret these incidents likewise should go on year after year.

5. *Full advantage should be taken of the "raw material" of international experience provided by out-of-school television.* Any realistic scheme for developing world-mindedness should take full advantage of the rich fare of international experience which can be found on commercial and educational television stations during the hours the youngster is not in the classroom. Such programs are having their influence, haphazardly, whether we take account of them or not. It is only sensible, then, to put them to use in a worthwhile educational endeavor.

6. *The viewing of programs with international content implies the need to develop critical discrimination with regard to the television medium.* Television occupies such a prominent place as the source of information and opinion on things international as to make necessary a systematic attempt to develop an enlightened and critical viewpoint toward the medium. The process of news-gathering and the qualifications of newsmen need to be carefully scrutinized. The various news media—television, radio, newspapers, and news magazines—need to be compared, both one medium with another and between different examples of the same medium. Documentaries, interviews, discussions, and even drama require critical examination. Standards for assessment of credibility need to be developed by viewers.

7. *In order for instructional television programs to be widely used, they must be a part of the ongoing curriculum.* It is now apparent

that enrichment broadcasts prepared by well-meaning instructional broadcasters without direct reference to the school curriculum are used by only a fraction of those who would greatly benefit from viewing them. A realistic plan for the employment of instructional television must gear programs to specific courses where these materials may thus become an integral part of the ongoing classroom learning experiences.

8. *The prime function of television used in the cultivation of international understanding is to expose learners to experiences involving other peoples, countries, and cultures.* Both out-of-school programs and instructional broadcasts make their major contribution to the child's learning of international understanding by exposing him to a variety of peoples, countries, and cultures. While television can be used to present detailed facts and to guide in the development of skills in ways similar to those employed by classroom teachers, this is not where the medium makes its unique contribution. Rather it is in the lifelike, stimulating presentation of representative individuals, children or adults, on the one hand, or scenes embodying characteristic expressions of custom, culture, and living habits, on the other. This means that picture and sound are the vehicles by which distant lands come alive for the viewer.

9. *Opportunity must be provided for learners to examine, compare, and assess the new experiences which television has brought; exposure alone is not enough.* As has been pointed out, youngsters today are constantly being exposed to things international through television and other mass media. But these viewing, listening, and reading experiences are random, fragmentary, and conflicting. What the school must provide is the opportunity for the learner to find relationships among these discrete happenings and thus to develop a meaningful rationale which will enable him better to understand his world and his place in it. This is the essence of education: helping the child "to see life steadily and to see it whole."

10. *The school should provide both for continuous gradual growth and for systematic cultivation of international understanding.* A general plan must take into account the need for both casual and organized teaching-learning in world affairs. On the one hand, as the youngster comes into contact with impressive international events he should be given opportunity to discuss them while they are fresh and current. On the other hand, casual discussions cannot take the place of a systematic study of other peoples, nations, and cultures in history, geography, literature, and the arts. In providing for both, the

school can to some extent affect the learners' understandings, attitudes, and dispositions to act.

STRATEGY/APPROACH ONE

Provide boys and girls an opportunity to discuss unusual international incidents encountered in their television viewing.

Rationale. A realistic plan for fostering the development of international understanding must recognize that boys and girls are exposed from time to time to unusual international happenings through their television viewing. It may be the investiture of the Prince of Wales or an alleged massacre in Vietnam or starvation in Nigeria. These vivid experiences have a great emotional impact upon the young, who then need an opportunity to express their feelings, to sort out and articulate their reactions, and to achieve some kind of understanding of what they have seen. Discussion cannot be put off, in most cases, until the "appropriate" place in the curriculum. It should take place while the experience is still fresh in the mind of the child.

Grade Levels. Teachers of all grade levels will naturally be involved in this procedure. In the kindergarten and primary grades where instruction is much more informal and unstructured, children's reactions bubble forth quite freely. The teacher's task is to aid these small ones in gaining a simple comprehension of what took place and some understanding of the causes. It is more difficult to make provision for such student expression and interchange as the school program becomes more formally organized. But it is essential that somewhere in the program there be some chance for the youngster to talk about what he has experienced, to release any pent-up feelings, to formulate his attempts at explanation. And it is equally important that there be someone to listen, to really hear him out, and to react intelligently to what he has expressed.

Area/Subjects. Most of the time these encountered events relate to a particular field of study—science or government or social studies or the arts—and in the secondary school can be handled by a teacher of that area. But if the incident is overwhelming in its impact, opportunities for expression and interaction can be provided by any concerned and interested teacher. The goal, of course, is to help learners relate these separate events to their own developing understanding of the world and of their place in it.

Responsibility. So far as the school is concerned, its function is to ensure that there is continuous opportunity for such discussion from

kindergarten through high school. On the part of administrators and curriculum makers, it is a matter of establishing a general policy and point of view which encourages this kind of activity. It will, of course, be recognized that time in the school program is scarce and cannot be devoted to the consideration of the trivial and the irrelevant. The simple criteria for discussion topics should be strength of impact and degree of unusualness. The responsibility for interpreting and carrying out such a policy quite properly falls upon the shoulders of those classroom teachers who are sensitive to the reactions of their students. Teachers must be aware both of international events and of TV programs which present them in order to assist the student with an interpretation of the events.

Enabling Conditions. To ensure that children and youth do have an opportunity to express themselves in relation to the unusual international occurrences they have witnessed via television, certain conditions are necessary. In the first place, time must be made available. In the primary grades this is usually the daily "conversation period" (sometimes "show and tell") when pupils are encouraged to recount interesting experiences they have had. In the middle grades, the teacher should make it a part of the set routine during the social studies period to inquire if the pupils have observed any unusual incidents involving other nations and peoples in their TV viewing. If teaching is not too rigidly departmentalized, children can be encouraged to deal with the entire scope of international human drama, not social studies alone. At secondary school levels, the most obvious way of providing time for this type of discussion is for the teacher of each related field (social studies, science, art, music, etc.) to make it clear that extraordinary current events affecting the particular field can be discussed at once regardless of the particular place in the course of study the class finds itself.

The second condition conducive to discussion is an atmosphere which encourages self-expression. This climate can be described as "permissive encouragement." Youngsters must be emboldened to speak up—both to report and to react—with the teacher fostering interaction, and, even more important, listening, as he keeps his own participation to a bare minimum.

Techniques. There appear to be three logical steps in carrying on this kind of classroom activity: introducing the incident, analyzing what actually took place, and interpreting the event in a larger context.

Assuming the time has been provided and the atmosphere is conducive to uninhibited expression, the first stage takes place as a stu-

dent brings up an impressive event he recently observed on television. The teacher must encourage the youngster to describe it as he wishes with all its original color and excitement. The idea, of course, is to savor the happening, to share the reactions and the feelings that the viewer experienced as he watched and listened to the unfolding action on the TV screen.

But one must learn that he can be carried away by his emotions—that his perception of events is profoundly influenced by his sympathies and passions and by the feelings generated by his previous experiences. The second stage, then, is to have the student retell the incident analytically, in terms simply of what he saw, what he heard, and hence, what (he assumes) actually happened. Others in the group who also observed the event are encouraged to amplify and correct the first student's version. Youngsters soon learn from this process that the most honest of witnesses differ in what they think they see and hear simply because of their varying backgrounds and emotions.

But the sources for the differing students' observations may also be unlike. Boys and girls quickly recognize that the reporting of an event by one station or network may not be the same as the account given by another station or network. And other media—press and radio—may present yet other versions. So the fundamental problem of what really took place, of what is the "truth," is raised. The purpose of the second stage, then, is to try, in spite of these difficulties, to arrive at an approximation of what actually went on.

The third stage is interpretation. What does the incident mean? What is its significance? How is it related, if at all, to things already learned in the particular field of study? What does it tell us about customs, about cultures, about people? About differences and likenesses?

Not every event is worth consideration at such length, but many are. And the ways of approaching such an occurrence, of distinguishing reporting from interpretation, of becoming aware of one's emotional preconceptions, of recognizing the conditioning influence of the past experience of those who do the reporting—these are learnings which carry over into everyday life, now and later. Because this strategy/approach deals with the raw data of contemporary human experience, it is likely to have great and lasting influence upon learners.

STRATEGY/APPROACH TWO

Make deliberate use of out-of-school telecasts to illustrate and illuminate ongoing teaching-learning involving international content.

Rationale. Simply discussing the unusual as it may happen to occur provides no firm base for the development of world-mindedness. The second strategy/approach, therefore, involves the deliberate exploitation of the offerings of television to supplement the school's instructional program involving the world scene. It is based on the assumption that television is now an invaluable source of educational experience and that reference viewing is quite as important as reference reading. It also assumes that on commercial and educational television stations there will be found an abundance of programs and program segments which treat of international content and that these can be used at all levels to illustrate and to illuminate classroom instruction. To be sure, programs directed to adults may have limited usefulness in the lower grades. However, many broadcasts are so general in their appeal that even the tiny ones are able to get something from them, although obviously not in the fullness and depth which would characterize the comprehension of those older. But international and cultural content, it should be noted, is to be found in such children's programs as *Sesame Street* (NET), *Captain Kangaroo* (CBS), and many local ones.

The point, of course, is that education has little meaning unless it can be related to the contemporary world, and the typical citizen today is in contact with this world principally through television. Thus when teachers make constant reference to the materials on television, boys and girls are being reminded that what is in the classroom has immediate ties with the real world out there. They are learning the relevancy of television as a source of educational experience.

Pertinent programs can be viewed by children and young people at home (although by no means all will be able to watch the same program) or, if the importance of the program warrants, in the classroom, from recordings made previously. Low price videotape recorders, with fair quality, are now available, and other types of home recorders will be on the market in the near future. Most viewing, however, will be at home. With nearly all homes equipped with TV sets, there is little reason why students cannot avail themselves of this "reference viewing" so long as they have a choice among several suggestions. It is the rare out-of-school program, indeed, which is so unusual that it needs to be seen by all members of a class. Actually the use of television programs by individuals and small groups, who report back to the larger group, should be encouraged in order to provide for differing interests, abilities, and needs.

Grade Levels. This constant, deliberate use of television's vast international program resources should characterize instruction at all levels.

Areas/Subjects. Involved will be those subject areas which have the primary responsibility for developing a world viewpoint. The major field, of course, is social studies. In the primary grades this often focuses upon the child's enlarging environment as he goes from home to neighborhood, community, and the larger world. These are not discrete circles of contact. Even the small child is subjected to influences which make him aware of things national and international as well as local and provincial, due in large measure to the impact of the mass media.

In the intermediate grades the youngster typically engages in area study, either by regions: "Living in the Desert," "The Peoples of Africa," or by examining selected countries, chosen to develop basic understandings or "themes." This is usually a human geography approach with some related history. Television assists this study by frequently providing programs which bring these areas to life.

At secondary school levels the principal subjects concerned with the world scene are likely to be world history and world geography. Some high schools are also developing such fields as Asian studies, African studies, and Latin American studies. All of these can be made meaningful by taking advantage of related telecasts as they may occur.

There are also fields of study which have the world as their locale, although the emphasis is on the particular discipline. For example, science is certainly worldwide in its scope and television programs dealing with scientific phenomena frequently have international settings. Similarly, foreign language study embraces culture as well as language skill so that occasional TV programs may be used to throw light upon customs and ways of life. World literature is better appreciated and understood when the peoples and nations from which the creative writing sprung are experienced vicariously on television. And, of course, art and music can be truly savored and comprehended only in terms of the culture and traditions of the originating group.

Responsibility. If there is to be widespread deliberate use of the resources of television in connection with the teaching of content relating to the world scene, it is essential that school administrators establish a strong supporting policy. Curriculum makers will need to provide for such learning experiences in courses of study and curric-

ulum guides, whether national, state, or local, for all the appropriate fields and grade levels. The implementation of this positive policy toward outside television programs is the responsibility of classroom teachers from kindergarten through senior high school, who are assigned the task of conducting instruction in the social studies (as the principal field) and in such subjects as science, literature, foreign languages, and the arts (in a less direct way).

Teacher Readiness. It seems apparent that if teachers are to treat the television medium with respect as a source of serious learning, they must themselves be "good television watchers" just as they are supposed to be "good readers." They should use the instrument judiciously both for entertainment and for feeding the mind with substantial material.

Teachers will need to stay abreast of series likely to be concerned with their own subject fields. The purpose served by this regular exposure to programs involving international material is to build up one's stock of current and historical examples to be used in relating one's teaching to the contemporary world scene. Frequent casual reference by the teacher to important television programs indicates to youngsters that the teacher is indeed a "good TV watcher," and that this activity has educational merit.

The school system itself should provide teachers, on a regular basis, with information about upcoming broadcasts of particular educational significance. Also, both educational and commercial television broadcasters have an obligation, very much in their self-interest, to keep teachers informed of programs of pertinence to the classroom. At the present time the Television Information Office, 745 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10022, serves this function in abbreviated form by a monthly full-page advertisement in *The Saturday Review* and *The New Yorker* which lists programs of educational and cultural merit from the three commercial networks. This ad is also distributed by mail to a list of interested persons. Such a service, including information from educational stations, should be provided locally in more detail, and in such a way as to reach every interested and concerned teacher. This will cost a good deal, but, if done well and pushed hard, the increased viewing and improved ratings should more than compensate.

Enabling Conditions. Conditions which will facilitate reference watching are both physical and psychological. Most important is making very clear to the students the basic assumption that reference viewing is as important as reference reading. This should not only

be said; the practices with regard to the use of television should also be consistent with this point of view. The student should understand why, today, reference viewing is so important. He should note the advantages of such viewing: (a) The programs are current – more up-to-date than books and magazines – and hence serve as vital links between classroom study and the contemporary world. (b) The programs are lifelike, the next best things to firsthand experience. (c) His choice of programs is not limited by the budget for learning materials of his school or library. The result of all this is that television programs have greater impact; he is more likely to be affected by them.

He should be aware, also, of the limitations: (a) broadcasts are on a rigid schedule to which he must conform or miss the experience; and (b) the program flows by at its own pace and, usually, for a single exposure. He cannot recall it for review, nor slow it down for easier comprehension.

Not only youngsters, but also their parents, should be informed that reference watching is expected in the modern world and that their child will be assigned such viewing just as other homework is given. Of course there will be parents who will react unfavorably to this policy; some because the youngsters may try to use an “assignment” to avoid some routine chore or distasteful engagement; others because such use of a set may interfere with their own viewing.

In all cases, particularly in deprived areas where home viewing is difficult (perhaps there can be no quiet privacy), the school would do well to explore the possibility of alternative viewing opportunities. The school itself, if it keeps a part of the plant open after school and in the evenings for adult classes or community activities, might set up a TV viewing room or two. The neighborhood libraries or community centers might be explored for convenient viewing facilities.

Techniques. There are a number of things which teachers can do to encourage effective reference television watching. To secure greater involvement on the part of the youngsters themselves, it is suggested that teachers enlist them in scouting on their own for programs likely to enhance classroom learning. Their suggestions may duplicate those of the teacher, but the source of the suggestions might encourage viewing. And often they will call attention to broadcasts which the teacher has overlooked.

In setting up viewing assignments, it is almost always necessary to name several alternative programs, since few pupils have the same schedule of activities and there are always unforeseen eventualities – unexpected guests, telephone interruptions, scout meetings, a trip to the dentist, competition for the TV set.

When viewing suggestions are made they should be followed up with oral or written reports. While oral reporting with interaction is the most fruitful way of making use of the observed material, it is seldom possible for all of the suggested programs to be discussed in the limited class time. Therefore routine written reports are helpful for every program each student views. This might well consist of (a) identifying information: program title, station, date, time; (b) nature of the program: what it dealt with and in what manner, for example, drama, discussion, filmed documentary; and (c) how it related to the unit of class study.

In oral reporting the students should be encouraged to follow a routine similar to that suggested for the treatment of casual viewing; i.e., an unstructured report, a factual account, and an interpretation. But the latter, of course, should develop relationships to the ongoing classroom learning which the program is presumed to illuminate. But just as with casual viewing reports, there should be frequent interaction among students with the teacher guiding the discussion but keeping his own participation to a minimum.

Sometimes it is important to provide a common viewing experience for the entire group as a basis for reflective analysis. There are four ways in which this can be managed. Rarely, an important, related program occurs during the time that the class is in session so that it can be viewed directly in the classroom and discussed immediately after. In special circumstances a class might get together as a group during out-of-school hours specifically to view and discuss an extraordinary broadcast. Both of these approaches are not feasible for most classes most of the time. But two others are.

Quite a number of documentary television programs are made available later as educational films for school use. These can be borrowed from the usual film libraries and shown as examples of programs which have more than the usual permanence. In a similar way, such programs are expected to be available soon on low cost EVR (Electronic Video Recording). In addition, current TV programs can be videotaped by the school and played back in the classroom. Increasingly schools are obtaining tape recorders for this, and other, purposes. Such occasional group use of video experiences is helpful in suggesting to many of the pupils techniques for critical viewing, including items to be observed and reflected upon.

At this point, too, attention should be called to the growing practice of making available films and tapes for individual and small group observation, usually in a learning center or school library,

sometimes in the back of the classroom, using earphones. With the increasing prevalence of low cost videotape recorders and the development of EVR, combined with the use of audio cassette tapes, this use of learning materials to meet individual needs and interests is likely to increase markedly. It is consistent with the trend toward increased student independence and self-direction in learning. And it makes possible in the school setting a form of reference viewing.

STRATEGY/APPROACH THREE

Provide for systematic examination of television as a major influence, at several critical points in the K-12 curriculum.

Rationale. The great impact of television viewing upon children and young people, as well as its use by both young and old as a major source of information and opinion, makes it imperative that students develop an informed and critical stance toward the medium. While in the incidental, as well as the deliberate, contact with television, already suggested, there will arise frequent questions of authenticity and credibility, dealing with these at the time is not enough. The school, with its obligation to orient growing youngsters to the real world, must provide for a systematic examination of the medium with the goals of developing appropriate ways of using its resources and acquiring discriminating attitudes toward it.

Grade Levels/Areas/Subjects. Such an intensive study of television itself should be offered for the first time as youngsters approach the peak of their TV viewing and as they begin to look more critically at their world. Depending upon the maturity and sophistication of the particular children and the nature of the school organization and situation, this would seem most appropriate in the sixth grade of the elementary school or the sixth or seventh grade in the middle school. Here it could be a six- or eight-week unit devoted to television alone, or a major part of a longer unit dealing with the mass media generally; i.e., television, radio, motion pictures, newspapers, magazines, and books. It might well be a part of courses dealing with modern developments both in this country and abroad, whether these be labeled "history" or simply "social studies." As youngsters learn about the expansion of transportation and communication, which has so significantly characterized the progress of industrialized nations, they can well afford to devote a six-week period to the communications medium which is currently having the most dynamic effect upon the world's peoples.

A more intensive and detailed study of the medium could be offered as youngsters reach the age of 14 to 16; i.e., in the ninth or tenth grade. Television is beginning, at this age, to lose its fascination in competition with other interests, although it is still important. The student is beginning to seek his separate identity and to become aware of influences playing upon him. He is beginning to rebel vigorously against established authority. He is capable of a more rigorous scrutiny of the various mass media of communications, television among them, and can raise and deal with many critical issues relating to the gathering, selection, and distribution of information, entertainment, and opinion. A unit on the mass media, with the emphasis placed on their use for information and understanding, most properly would seem to belong in the area of the social studies, perhaps in history. However, considered simply as means of expression, the mass media have frequently been the object of study in high school English courses.

Finally, the high school senior, in the Problems of Democracy course or its equivalent, can well examine in considerable depth the role of the mass media in a democracy. The media's effects on public opinion, political behavior, levels of expectation among the poor and the disadvantaged, patterns of public expression, modes of living, and personal and social values can be investigated. For many young people this will be their last opportunity to make an objective appraisal of television, although they are likely to depend upon it (or some evolved form of it) as a major source of entertainment and information for the balance of their lives.

Responsibility. Units and courses centered on critical examination of the mass media are not common in American schools. Most of this sort of consideration has occurred incidentally, if at all, in connection with regular subjects. Inauguration of such units and courses, therefore, requires the development of policy favorable to such innovation on the part of the administrators and curriculum people who normally make curriculum decisions. Such policy, in turn, needs to be implemented by the careful preparation of the appropriate courses of study or curriculum guides. This is usually entrusted to a committee of teachers and other instructional personnel. The responsibility for the actual teaching of such courses and units, naturally, rests upon classroom teachers. This approach will fail unless they are interested and concerned, and they know how to go about formulating, teaching, and having at hand the necessary learning materials.

Because, for most schools, this whole strategy/approach is new, it is strongly suggested that if such courses or units are initiated, then

not only should curriculum guides be developed, with wide teacher participation, but also much attention and effort should be devoted to the in-service education of those who will be teaching this new material. Also, a great deal of work should go into providing needed learning materials and the corresponding hardware necessary for their use.

Teacher Readiness. If a teacher is to do justice to this new unit of study, he will need special preparation. If possible the school system should provide this training in a workshop or professional improvement course which offers the needed kinds of experiences. The advantages of such group preparation are clear: (a) the teacher is compensated for this use of his time, and (b) he has an opportunity to discuss and think through the implications of the various activities in which he engages. But even without this training the teacher can ready himself by two lines of exploratory activity.

First, he can familiarize himself with the television medium in some depth. He might start by saturating himself with television by viewing a sampling of most of the available informational and educational programs on the commercial and educational stations in his area. In this way he gains a firsthand knowledge of what is available, the extent to which international content is included, and the level of skill and artistry which go into such programs. He might then arrange to visit both a commercial and an educational station. Besides viewing operations, he should try, in each case, to talk with those who handle news, public affairs, and education.

Second, the teacher can prepare himself by entering the students' world of television, so that he can become intimately acquainted with the role TV plays in his students' lives. The easy way to do this is to conduct a simple paper-and-pencil survey among the students at the beginning of the unit, or preferably, some weeks ahead. On a prepared blank the students are asked to supply the following information: (a) How many TV sets, in working order, are in the home? Is one of these a color set? (b) Estimate the amount of time you spend on an average weekday viewing TV; on Saturdays; on Sundays. (c) List the five programs you view most regularly (whether daily or weekly). (d) List the five programs you like best. The teacher can compile this information to discover the most viewed programs as well as the most popular ones. Then he should watch a sample of them to determine what it is in the programs that has such an appeal to his students.

Enabling Conditions. If boys and girls generally are to become discriminating with regard to television as the prime source of inter-

national experience, then the suggested units will need to be offered to all, or nearly all, students. This is clearly the first condition for the success of the program. By including such units on three levels – in the social studies curriculum in grade 6 or 7, in the social studies or English courses in grade 9 or 10, and in the Problems of Democracy course in grade 12 – practically all youngsters will be reached.

The second requirement for success is that there be a carefully prepared curriculum guide to assist teachers in carrying out this new teaching-learning experience. Developed, hopefully, by teachers assisted by consultants, the guide should contain a clear statement of goals, an outline of the content to be covered, a suggested list of varied learning experiences, and ways in which the progress of the students can be evaluated.

A third condition for success is to provide needed materials and equipment. A small library of reference books about television and its impact, together with a few subscriptions to *TV Guide*, local newspapers, and, perhaps, the *New York Times* or the *Christian Science Monitor*, will be helpful. Probably the most useful aid for class activity, however, would be a moderately priced videotape recorder to record and play back current programs for analysis and discussion. Many high schools are acquiring such equipment. Some place it in a central studio location and distribute the programs to individual classrooms over a closed-circuit system. Others buy portable types to be borrowed by individual teachers. In other localities the machines are purchased by the school system and loaned out to individual schools.

Techniques. A full-length book would be required to delineate the many activities that can be carried on in these units. The goal is clear: to enable boys and girls to become critical and discriminating with regard to the television medium as a source of international experience. Four major objectives, applicable to all three levels, will first be suggested, after which a variety of learning activities will be mentioned in the hope that teachers and curriculum makers will be able to use them as starting points for the development of many more, suitable for the three grade levels.

While the general objectives are the same for the three levels, their actual representation in behavior will exhibit varying degrees of intellectual sophistication at different ages. Nevertheless the teacher should expect his students, in their use of television as a source, to reveal the extent to which these objectives have been achieved.

1. *Influence*: to become aware of the influence television programs have upon information, opinions, attitudes, and behavior. Children and young people need to become aware of the influence that television, as their most important source of entertainment and information, has upon the whole gamut of human behavior. Particularly in the international sphere they should become sensitive to the extent to which access to ideas and opinions is limited; to the prevalence of stereotypes and clichés in dealing with other peoples and cultures; and to the possibilities of control by special groups and interests. As they note the power of television advertising in affecting their buying habits, and the persuasive effects of glamour, fashion, and entertainment upon their modes of living, they should recognize that exposure to international content may also be swaying them in significant ways. Becoming aware of the influence of television is the first step in freeing oneself from such unconscious control. Youngsters should ask themselves a basic question here: Are we, in fact, free, or are we determined in our thinking by our sources of experience?

2. *Sources*: to become familiar with program sources for international and cultural content. In general boys and girls have been exposed to international scenes and happenings in an incidental and casual fashion, rather than having purposely sought out such content. Now as they scrutinize the television medium as a source of global experience, they need to become familiar with the principal program series, stations, and networks from which such material is obtained. They should, for example, sample and characterize the various news services, both network and local, and know what sort of coverage can be expected from each. Older boys and girls should become familiar with interview and discussion programs and what each may be likely to contribute to the clarification or background understanding of international problems. They should acquaint themselves with the network documentaries and with the filmed series dealing with remote people and places. They should know what to anticipate in a National Geographic special as contrasted with segments of *First Tuesday*. And, certainly, they should become acquainted with their local educational TV station which carries many NET programs dealing with worldwide events. The assumption here is that as youngsters mature they become more selective in their viewing; that they begin to tune to specific programs to meet particular needs. Less and less will they simply turn on the TV set and idly go from one channel to another until something

attracts their attention. Such purposeful viewing requires a knowledge of what is available on the various channels and what to expect from regular program series.

3. *Standards*: to develop standards for evaluating television progress as a source of international experience. Critical discrimination implies making choices on the basis of some kind of standards or criteria. One dictionary definition declares that discrimination is the capacity to "distinguish, by discerning differences." Standards enable the individual to make distinctions with regard to the qualities to which the standards refer. At the various levels, children and young people should begin to formulate functional standards out of their experience in comparing programs with each other and using them to serve their needs. Students will become concerned with the credibility and authenticity of televised international content. They will develop standards in relation to news gathering, selection, and presentation; in reference to the planning and airing of interview and discussion programs; in terms of documentaries; and with reference to drama and historical reenactment. Such criteria, it should be noted, will be developed by the learners themselves as they examine, describe, compare, and contrast their television experiences. Standards, like taste, cannot be imposed. To be real and functional they must grow from within. The teacher's task is to arrange conditions so that such growth may occur.

4. *Selection*: to select programs on the basis of standards in order to satisfy specific interests and needs. This objective focuses attention upon one kind of behavior that is to be fostered by these proposed units. The goal is for children and young people actually to select programs involving international content in terms of the standards which they have developed and which, hopefully, have become a part of them. For routine news coverage they may be expected to turn to the stations or networks which they have found to be the least biased, and, perhaps, the most comprehensive in their treatment of the items of the day. When it comes to critical international news stories, they may be expected to seek balance or objectivity by tuning in to more than one version of the same incident. Likewise, they may seek reasonably accurate scientific accounts on National Geographic series but expect only entertainment from some of the local travel series built around the amateur films of vacationing tourists. And they will select science fiction for what it may suggest of the future, not for its present reality.

Once the objectives are clear, the selection of related learning experiences is a matter largely of analyzing each objective to determine the types of activities which are implied.

A good starting point, for example, is provided by the class survey, described above. When this is summarized in terms of set ownership, the amount of time students are devoting to TV, and the kinds of programs which they are watching, discussion of the implications naturally follows. Does the amount of voluntary time given to television suggest a strong attraction? Does this mean, then, that the medium is in a position to exert a strong influence upon viewers since their attitudes toward chosen programs are clearly receptive and favorable? Does the popularity of some types of programs indicate that the mass media exert a considerable influence upon popular taste among the young? Such beginnings lead to a consideration of the effects of advertising commercials upon buying habits and upon the "expectancies" of the masses. This may stimulate a student survey of brands of merchandise on kitchen and bathroom shelves in relation to the prevalence of corresponding commercials. Thus the class finds itself examining the broader question of the general impact of television upon living styles, here and abroad.

To center class activity upon the international, a study can be undertaken among the students inquiring of the actual sources of their international experience. Are newspapers in the home? What parts are read regularly? Do they habitually examine *Time*, *Newsweek*, *Life*, and *Look*? Do they peruse stories in these publications concerning the international? What radio news reports are followed regularly? What TV news is viewed daily? Do they ever view TV documentaries? TV specials? Have they detected international content or references in entertainment programs? Have they ever been in another country? How did life there compare with what they expected from their previous vicarious experiences?

Again, such data will need to be summarized so that students may explore the possibilities which are indicated. Hopefully they will see more and more clearly the influence of TV and other mass media, and will feel the need for standards for appraising the various experiences they are having with things international.

Students, too, can analyze, roughly, the content of TV news, discussion, and documentary programs. For example, on an evening news report, how many items are covered? How many of these deal with international affairs or with events in other countries? What proportion of documentaries in a given month are concerned with matters of world import? Similar counts and comparisons can be

made of the persons interviewed and the topics covered on the *Today* show, and on panel programs over an extended period.

This process of data gathering and discussion of implications inevitably means that the pupils no longer take television for granted. Instead they begin to raise questions about its operations and functions – why it is the way it is. Who makes the decisions which determine the kinds of programs, the participants, the treatment, the presence and extent of international content? What qualifications have the people who gather, process, and report the news? What influences are brought to bear upon them, consciously or unconsciously?

At the twelfth-grade level this can mean a penetrating study of the organization of broadcasting: the broadcasters themselves, both commercial and educational; the government agencies related to the medium, including particularly the Federal Communications Commission; the program package agencies and film companies whose programs appear on television; the commercial sponsors. Who, then, is ultimately responsible for what appears? Who influences the nature of the international experiences which are communicated to viewers?

It is quite important that students become concerned with appropriate standards for the various types of programs. These will develop from the students' experiences as they compare programs with each other and with other sources of international content. But their general nature can, to some extent, be predicted.

For drama and historical reenactment, students will be concerned with believability. Are the people real? Is or was life like this? Is this the way people would act under the given conditions?

For news and documentaries, and indeed, for programs dealing with other peoples and cultures generally, students raise questions of authenticity and accuracy. They will want to know something of the background of individual newsmen. They will want to examine the record and reputation of the organizations and institutions behind the program. They will want to find out about the relative openness of the situation – was there a free flow of information or were censorship and news manipulation involved? Were experts and authorities in appropriate fields consulted in the development of the program or news story?

For documentaries and discussion programs, young people will want to determine the integrity of the enterprise. Is there a concern for fairness in handling controversy, for objectivity, for balance among opposing points of view?

Finally, in the unit, students at all levels will learn something about the great difficulty of covering events in an accurate and repre-

sentative way, whether the event is past or present. They will discover that giving an honest account is not as simple as it sounds. Even seasoned reporters have difficulty in ascertaining "the facts" about an occurrence. And the determination of its significance or its representativeness is even harder; three points must be kept in mind.

1. *Generally speaking, people are more interested in the unusual than in the usual.* Hence what is presented to viewers both in the news and in other types of sound and picture coverage is apt to be unrepresentative rather than customary. For domestic events, adults can correct their perceptions of the news from firsthand experience. But for international happenings, few adults, and even fewer children, have had the necessary face-to-face acquaintance with things foreign. Thus they are apt to accept the reported event as typical. This is how misinformation, distortions, and stereotypes about other countries and peoples develop.

2. *Youngsters will learn that no two persons will see the same event in exactly the same way; that witnesses inevitably differ in their simple recounting of what took place.* Hence news stories from different sources may be expected to be at variance. And further, the acceptance of any single report as "the truth" is naive and may be dangerous. Witness the conflicting accounts of the disturbance in connection with the Chicago Democratic National Convention. Who can say precisely what happened there?

3. *All reporting, including and especially television reporting, is selective.* The idea that because television lets one see events firsthand, one is therefore witnessing stark reality—the actual, undistorted occurrence—is simply not true. Selection is operating (and must operate) in a variety of ways which inevitably affect the message which is communicated by the television medium.

The first type of selection takes place when the choice is made to cover rather than to ignore a given event. As soon as the television decision makers, along with their colleagues in other media, decide to handle the occurrence, they have rendered a judgment about its importance. In effect, they have brought the event out of obscurity into at least local and possibly national and international significance. And the participants in the affair, now well aware of this power of television, may alter the nature of their activity because of the presence of the cameras. The viewer, therefore, may be getting a staged, rather than a true report simply because television is there.

The second type of selection is represented by the choice of "angle" to be taken in the coverage. Shall they cover the strikers or those in-

convenienced by the strike? Shall they feature the causes of the conflict or play up the results? The viewer is limited to the angles of a story which the media decide are worthy of their coverage.

The third type of selection is in the choice of people to be featured and/or interviewed in connection with an event. Viewer reaction is apt to be greatly influenced by what the people involved in an event are saying about it. Are these persons put on camera because they are conveniently accessible, because they represent those most affected by the happening, or on the basis of some careful selection to secure those with representative interests and reactions?

Selection also operates, consciously or unconsciously, in the choice of pictures to be transmitted. Shall cameras focus on the violence of the French students or on the action of the police? In covering a statesman's speech, shall a reaction shot reveal a yawning spectator or an attentive listener? Obviously the TV audience must rely upon the objectivity and integrity of the television personnel, including the cameramen.

Lastly, selection operates in the painstaking fashion in which a filmed documentary is put together and edited. Customarily these are over-shot at least ten to one. In selecting the one-tenth to be used, what criteria are employed? Is the final version an expression of the director's biases or a faithful representation of the problem, or what?

These suggested ways of approaching these units on various levels are intended only to stimulate curriculum makers to develop many more learning experiences which will enable boys and girls to exercise critical discrimination in their use of television as a prime source of international experience.

STRATEGY/APPROACH FOUR

Use instructional television series to implement units and courses with international content.

Rationale. In essence what this strategy/approach involves is the organized employment of broadcast materials especially made for the classroom. There is a close analogy here to the situation regarding the print medium. Teachers make use of current magazines, reference books, and even newspapers in teaching-learning, but they also rely heavily upon textbooks prepared especially for school use and directed to the particular subject area and maturity level. In the same way with regard to the television medium, teachers will make use of out-of-school programs, as suggested in Strategy/Approach Two, but

they should also be provided with instructional television programs planned and produced especially for school use and directed to the particular subject area and maturity level. Such broadcasts can be of high quality and offer real help in the development of international understanding. If ITV broadcasts involving international content are to be a significant factor in classroom education, a close and harmonious relationship between the curriculum specialists and the television specialists is essential. This is not a matter of paying lip service to the principle of cooperation. Those responsible for effective instruction and those who seek to implement it through TV must constantly work together—from the earliest planning stage through the utilization of programs in the classroom. Otherwise, broadcasts can be unrelated to teaching concerns, used badly at the receiving end, or neglected entirely by busy teachers.

Grade Levels. Since the development of international understanding is gradual and to be encouraged from the entrance at kindergarten through the completion of high school, ITV series could be of help at any grade level. Actually, however, such series should be offered in connection with existing courses which deal in some major way with international content. In addition, if the amount of broadcasting is limited, it would be logical to plan series for younger children, as a first priority, since there are fewer out-of-school broadcasts dealing with foreign peoples and cultures which are suitable at these levels.

Area/Subjects. In the elementary school the principal area to be implemented by instructional broadcasts with global material is the social studies. In the primary grades such broadcasts might bring life-like reality to the child's first encounters with the wider world beyond his immediate neighborhood. In the intermediate grades, ITV series can be very valuable in enlivening the study of other lands and peoples. Local broadcasts of national and international news, treated in some depth and tailored especially for children of this age, while purely supplementary in character, can be helpful in establishing habits of following current affairs and relating these happenings to their growing understanding of the world. In the secondary school, instructional television series can be presented as inescapable parts of world history, world geography, or world literature. Other series may enrich instruction in foreign languages and the arts.

Responsibility. There is a two-fold responsibility implied by the employment of ITV series to implement existing courses dealing with international content. There is the responsibility involved in making such series available and there is the responsibility relating to their

effective use in classrooms. But first of all a favorable policy decision by administrators and instructional personnel, dealing with the two aspects, would be required.

Purpose of ITV Use. The basic goal of ITV is to bring coherent units of international experience into the classroom so that they be examined, discussed, and assimilated. This implies a two-fold responsibility; first, to make sure that the broadcasts center upon life experience, not mere talk; and, second, to ensure that they are so presented as to stimulate and motivate classroom learning activities. Broadcasts should be provocative; they should set the stage for discussion and action; they should, in a sense, be open-ended.

The ITV Dilemma. In planning school telecasts involving international content, decision makers face a dilemma. If such series are geared directly to courses as now taught, experience indicates that the vivifying "slices of life" are apt to be lost in a great mass of geographic and historic fact so as to have little impact upon pupils. On the other hand, if series are developed which consist entirely of materials aimed to enrich instruction in things international, but are not pointed directly to specific courses, they are likely to go unused by busy teachers.

It is suggested that the best solution lies in relating the series to specific existing courses, but restricting the role of the broadcasts to that of bringing lifelike international experiences into the classroom. Specifically, series would be broadcast related to the typical area emphasis in elementary social studies; to world geography and world history at higher levels; and, perhaps, to world literature and the arts in the secondary school. But such series would be so carefully planned by curriculum and television specialists working together that those broadcasts involving international understanding would be scheduled when such matters were in the forefront of classroom attention. Further, the broadcasts would be devoted in large part to conveying lifelike experience, not factual detail, because this is where TV makes its greatest contribution to the classroom.

It must be recognized that instructional programs may be planned and broadcast chiefly for a single school system such as Detroit or the Edgewood Independent School District in San Antonio, Texas. On the other hand, broadcasts may be developed for and by a group of many school systems as is the Twenty-One Inch Classroom, in Boston, or the school telecasts from Station WVIZ-TV in Cleveland, Ohio. The problem of relating broadcasts closely to school courses of study varies greatly in these two situations. With only one city in-

volved, the curriculum and television personnel can together relate television to a given course with relative ease. They can plan each scheduled broadcast to dovetail nicely with the unit which is, in most schools, being studied at the time.

When many school systems are involved, the problem is much more complicated. The usual solution, unfortunately, is to abandon the idea of any close relationship and simply settle for enrichment broadcasts which may then be directed to a span of grades. The broadcasts are usually educationally valuable for the intended levels, and the classroom teacher is free to use or ignore them. If he chooses to use the broadcast, he must find his own ways of relating it to the ongoing teaching-learning of his pupils.

But it is here suggested that the more difficult course be pursued of trying to secure broad agreement among most, if not all, of the school systems as to the specific level and course to which a telecast series should directly relate. Then attempts should be made to secure broad concurrence as to the type and order of units within the course, so that the telecast can fit the course, unit by unit. Not all school systems will wish to do this, but they can still continue to use the programs for enrichment. But when ITV series are closely linked to specific courses they are much more likely to be used by teachers. And if vital content for the development of international understanding is to reach most boys and girls through ITV, this seems to be the most promising way; provided, of course, that the series are of high quality in both content and production.

The Problem of Quality. The problem of securing and maintaining quality in instructional broadcasts is most important. In general, educational broadcasters, with low budgets, have too frequently been concerned with using television to communicate accepted content more or less in traditional classroom fashion. They have neglected, or have been unable, to use television to its full potential. Not only has production quality been low, but also the content has not reflected the great educational contributions of the world outside the school, which the medium could bring to classrooms. While this unhappy condition in some cases may be the result of a lack of creativity and imagination on the part of ITV personnel, it more commonly is due to the want of the necessary financial resources.

Two ways have been found for meeting this problem. The first is for the ITV facility to lease quality series from the national distribution agencies; i.e., National Instructional Television and the Great Plains Instructional Television Library. The second is for the local or

regional agency to do fewer series, but by putting more resources into these series secure higher quality.

The securing of series from outside agencies should be as carefully and deliberately undertaken as the selection of textbooks in a metropolitan school district. It requires the close collaboration of instructional and television personnel. The former examine the relevance of the proposed series to the related course; the latter is concerned with TV production quality. An important factor to be considered is whether the separate programs must be telecast in a given order. If so, it means that the schools must adjust their instructional schedules and order of units to conform to the broadcasts. If the programs can be moved about, then there is likely to be less difficulty in relating the classroom instruction to the broadcasts.

When a series of ITV broadcasts is planned and produced locally to implement an existing course, it is still possible for the programs to be lifelike in their communication of international experience. Much of classroom activity tends to be abstract and seemingly unrelated to life outside the school walls. Television can make its contribution by bringing in visual and aural representations of this world outside.

The "talking face" should be kept to a minimum. Broadcasts should be filled with film clips of people, situations, and scenes from abroad. Pictorial material—pictures, slides, posters—should be abundant. Artifacts, real objects representing peoples and cultures, should be brought in from homes, museums, galleries, stores, and industrial plants. Children and adults, whether foreign visitors, newcomers to the United States, or exchange students, should be interviewed or asked to tell of and demonstrate their distinctive customs, traditions, and cultures. Case studies of people in problem situations (making historic decisions; facing differences in food, costume, or living habits) can be presented through role-playing. Simple simulation games can be demonstrated for classroom use. Sometimes, and increasingly in the future, tape or film material from foreign sources can be borrowed to bring reality to the telecasts.

A number of things can be done at the local level to make easier the production of such enlivened international programs. A list of local resources, people, and institutions can be developed in which, by area or country, are recorded for handy reference the names of specialists (professors, business and professional men and women, labor and agricultural leaders, exchange students or teachers, seasoned tourists) and organizations (museums, foreign consulates, govern-

mental agencies) together with their capabilities: expert opinion, authoritative information, films, slides, artifacts.

Two-way international broadcasts involving discussion between a group of students in a studio in the United States and a similar group abroad can sometimes be arranged. Such extraordinary broadcasts may be culminating experiences for a unit or course and provide great motivation for intensive study. The cost of such a live relay by satellite may at the moment be prohibitive unless it is underwritten by an interested foundation or industrial firm. Exchanges with Mexico, French Canada, or places in the Caribbean, however, may be feasible. In addition, there are approximations which are much less expensive. For example, a telelecture arrangement (two-way telephone hook-up) may constitute the live interaction part of the program, while slides and pictures, supplied in advance, of the foreign participants and the things they are discussing, together with takes of the local students, constitute the visual part of the program.

Another possibility, requiring extensive preparation, is the advance filming of each of the two groups after they have exchanged questions and statements by correspondence. The films are then intercut to provide a semblance of live give-and-take discussion.

At the national level, and hopefully supported by the Corporation for Public Broadcasting, a limited number of broadcast series for use in schools could well be produced for nationwide airing on ETV stations. Such live series would be justified on the basis of their timeliness and their use of extraordinary resources. A broadcast of news, featuring national and international items, directed to grades five through seven would be immensely helpful if it made abundant use of personalities, film clips, pictures, and displays not readily available to local broadcasters.

A series of once-a-week magazine-type programs, directed to secondary schools, might well feature two or three national or international items in each program which would be treated in considerable depth both to provide related background and to bring alive what might otherwise appear dull and prosaic. It would need to be assumed and stated that to reach the desired audience the program would have to be recorded by the school to be used at the time of year when the items were relevant and at the times of day when the appropriate classes were in session.

From a long-term point of view, instructional broadcasters should be developing cooperative arrangements with their colleagues abroad both to exchange program material on film or tape, and, jointly, to produce programs or segments about life and cultures in the various

STRATEGIES/APPROACHES FOR USE OF TELEVISION IN

Strategies/Approaches

Grade Levels

One: Provide opportunity to discuss unusual international incidents encountered on television.

Kindergarten through twelfth grade

Two: Make deliberate use of out-of-school television to illustrate and illuminate courses with international content.

Kindergarten through twelfth grade

Three: Provide for systematic examination of television as a major source of information and influence.

1. Grade six or seven
2. Grade nine or ten
3. Grade twelve

Four: Use ITV series to implement units and courses involving international content.

Kindergarten through twelfth grade as appropriate

DEVELOPING INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

<i>Areas/Subjects</i>	<i>Responsibility</i>
Those related to incidents; home room; others in special circumstances	<i>For Policy:</i> Administrators, curriculum makers, super- visors <i>For Implementation:</i> Teachers of related subjects; all sensitive and concerned teachers
<i>Major:</i> Primary social studies; elementary social studies and/or history, geography; secondary world history, world geography, area studies <i>Minor:</i> Science, world literature, foreign language, art, music	<i>For Policy:</i> Administrators, cur- riculum makers, supervisors <i>For Implementation:</i> In courses: curriculum makers; in major fields: teachers of social studies; in minor fields: teach- ers of science, literature, languages, art, and music
1. Social studies or history 2. Social studies, world history, or American history 3. Problems of Democracy or equivalent	<i>For Policy:</i> Administrators, cur- riculum makers <i>For Course Development:</i> Cur- riculum committees with teacher participation <i>For Teacher Education:</i> Instruc- tional decision makers <i>For Providing Equipment and Materials:</i> Administrators, in- structional decision makers <i>For Classroom Implementation:</i> Social studies teachers; perhaps English teachers
<i>Primary:</i> Social studies — the child and his ex- panding world <i>Intermediate:</i> Social studies — other lands and peoples <i>Secondary:</i> World history, world geography, world literature, languages, and the arts	<i>For Policy:</i> Administrators, instructional personnel <i>For Developing ITV Series:</i> ITV producers with instructional personnel <i>For Effective Utilization:</i> Teachers, utilization special- ists, resource persons

areas which would be useful to the schools of other nations. The Asian Broadcasting Union, for example, is already producing experimental series about children and youth in some of its member countries for use abroad. The instructional broadcasters group within the National Association of Educational Broadcasters might well devote both time and finance to exploring these possibilities. UNESCO, too, should have an interest in the exchange and new production of such program materials.

Enrichment ITV. ITV enrichment series can be devoted almost entirely to lifelike content involving the encouragement of world understanding. To secure as wide use as possible of such series, a number of things can be done. First, such programs can be offered relatively infrequently accompanied by much publicity in educational circles. This is similar to the treatment of occasional "specials" on commercial stations and networks. Because they are rare they are more likely to be viewed, once the audience is aware of them. Teachers may be better able to use an occasional program than a regular series. At any rate, broadcasts in a single enrichment series should not be shown more often than once a week.

Second, enrichment broadcasts for world understanding can be given in short series, scheduled at a time when there is likely to be a heavy classroom emphasis on other countries and peoples. A series of four to six weekly telecasts, appropriately publicized, can be fitted into a course, particularly if it comes at an opportune time in the year's schedule.

Third, teachers should be urged either (a) to use those enrichment broadcasts which happen to coincide with their plans or (b) to set aside a time each week simply to view and follow up a series without regard to its gearing into a specific course.

A Final Word. If ITV programs are to be widely and effectively used in schools, there must be a real concern on the part of both television and instructional administrators for the receiving end of the process. From the equipment point of view this means that a good TV signal should reach each target school and that TV sets in good operating condition should be readily accessible to all target teachers. Whether this means a closed-circuit distribution system or individual sets in a particular school is for the local authorities to determine.

But, more importantly, classroom teachers should become involved with ITV through some carefully planned in-service education activities. They should understand its role, welcome its assistance, and know how to relate to it. And for specific series, much thought and

instructional skill should go into the preparation of the series and of teacher guides which serve as the vital link between the experiences presented in the studio and the activities which take place in the classroom.

Television is a highly significant fact of today's world. It profoundly influences both children and adults. The mission of this bulletin has been to suggest ways in which, both inside and outside the school, television can be put to use to nurture the growth of world understanding. Without such world understanding, mankind may well destroy itself within a decade or two. With it, there is, at least, hope.

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He has published a research monograph dealing with the outcome of social studies instruction and a report of a high school discussion group which he conducted. In addition, he has written and published over a hundred articles dealing with radio and television, education, and the curriculum. With Norman Woelfel, he is editor of *Radio and the School*, a guide book for teachers and school administrators. He was one of the authors of *Mass Media and Education*, the fifty-third yearbook (part II) of the National Society for the Study of Education, and *Television's Impact on American Culture*, edited by Professor William Y. Elliott of Harvard University.